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VOL. VII.

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

. SPECIMENS OF THE MARATHI LANGUAGE.

· COMPILID AND EDITED BY

G A GRIERSON CIE, Ph.D, D.Litt., ICS (Reid.),

HONORARY MEMPER OF THE ASIATIC SOCIETY OF THE AND OF THE AMERICAN OLICYTAL COURTY, FORTHER ASSOCIATE MEMBERS,



Subject to subsequent revision, the following is the proposed list of volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India.

Vol. I. Introductory.

,,

- II. Mon-Khmer and Tai families.
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 - ., II Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages
 - " III. Kuki-Ohn and Burma groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
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 - V. Indo-Aryan languages, Eastern group.
 - Part I. Bengali and Assamese
 - " II. Bihārī and Oriyā.
- VI. Indo-Aryan languages, Mediate group (Eastern Hindi).
 - VII. Indo-Aryan languages, Southern group (Marathi).
- ,. VIII Indo-Aryan languages, North-Western group (Sindhī, Lahndā, Kashmīrī, and the "Non-Sanskritie" languages)
 - IX. Indo-Aryan languages, Central group
 - Part I. Western Hindi and Panjabi.
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LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATION ADOPTED.

A .- For the Deva-nagari alphabet, and others related to it-

खाय, आयारं, इरं, ईरं, उथ, ऊपं, ऋगं, प्रट, एरं, ऐतां, खीठ, खीठं, खीता. . च cha क chha ज ja क ka ख kha ਬ gha ङ २१८ भा jha ज ña ग वय z ta ਤ tha ड da & dha गा् श्र त ta घ tha द da ध dha न na प pa फ pha य ba भ bha म ma ਧyaT ra ल la व va or wa & Tha भा हैत ष sha ₹ ha ड ra $\approx la$ æ lha. πsa

Visarga (:) is represented by h, thus দ্ধ্যা; kramakah. Anusoūra (') is represented by m, thus বিহু simh, ব্যা vams. In Bengali and some other languages it is pronounced ng, and is then written ng; thus ব্যা bangsa. Anunāsika or Chandra-bindu is represented by the sign " over the letter nasalized, thus মা mã.

B.—For the Arabic alphabet, as adapted to Hindostani-

```
a, etc.
               j
                          د d
             3
    b
                ch
                          ં તે
                                                       sh
                                      3 ?
             τ
                                      ء ر
                                                       s
    p
               h
                                      5 2/4
                 lch
ي ت
                                                                 when representing anun isika
                                                                   m Děrn-nagari, by ~ over
                                                                   pasalized vowel
                                                                 to or v
                                                                 12
                                                             څ
                                                                 y, etc.
```

Tanwin is represented by n, thus $\frac{1}{2}$ fauran. Alif-i magsūra is represented by \bar{a} ;—thus, \hat{a} \hat{a} -tous \hat{a} -tous, \hat

In the Arabic character, a final silent h is not transliterated,—thus www banda. When pronounced, it is written,—thus, w gunāh.

Vowels when not pronounced at the end of a word, are not written in transliteration. Thus, বন ban, not bana. When not pronounced in the middle of a word or only slightly pronounced in the middle or at the end of a word, they are written in small characters above the line. Thus (Hindi) ইন্তনা dēkh²tā, pronounced dēkhtā; (Kāśmiri) বন্ধ কৈ চি॰ ; বন্ধ চি চিলে". pronounced kor; (Bihānī) ইন্তৰ dēkhath.

- C.—Special letters peculiar to special languages will be dealt with under the head of the languages concerned. In the meantime the following more important instances may be noted:—
 - (a) The ts sound found in Maiāthī (司), Pushtō (夫), Kāśmīrī (云, 司), Tibetan (念), and elsewhere, is represented by ts. So, the aspirate of that sound is represented by tsh
 - (b) The dz sound found in Maiāthī (ল), Pushtō (৯), and Tibetan (ই) is represented by dz, and its aspirate by dzh
 - (c) Kāśmīnī ্ (অ) is represented by ñ.
 - (d) Sindhī &, Western Panjābī (and elsewhere on the N.-W. Frontier) ;, and Pushtō i or are represented by n.
 - (e) The following are letters peculiar to Pushtō:—
 ψ t; ts or dz, according to pronunciation; ψ d; χr; χzh or g, according to pronunciation; ψ sh or λh, according to pronunciation; γ or η n.
 - (f) The following are letters peculiar to Sindhī:—

 ب الله ; بالله ; خاله ؛ خا
- D.—Certain sounds, which are not provided for above, occur in transcribing languages which have no alphabet, or in writing phonetically (as distinct from transliterating) languages (such as Bengali) whose spelling does not represent the spoken sounds. The principal of these are the following:—

```
\vec{a}, represents the sound of the a in all.
```

- \tilde{a} , ,, ,, a in hat, \tilde{e} , ... , e in wet
- \tilde{c} , ,, ,, e in met.
- ō, ,, o in hot.
- e, " " é in the French était.
- o, ,, o in the first o in promote.
- o, " " " in the German schön.
- \vec{u}_i . ,, , \vec{u} in the , $m\vec{v}$ he.
- $\frac{dh}{dt}, \qquad , \qquad , \qquad th \text{ in think.}$
- $\frac{dh}{dt}$, ,, ,, th in thus.

The semi-consonants peculiar to the Munda languages are indicated by an apostrophe. Thus k', t', p', and so on

E.—When it is necessary to mark an accented syllable, the acute accent is ysed. Thus in (Khōwāi) ássistai, he was, the acute accent shows that the accent falls on the first, and not, as might be expected, on the second syllable.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

I am indebted to Dr. Sten Konow of Christiania, Norway, for the preparation of this volume. As Editor of the Series of volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India, I am responsible for all statements contained in it.

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.

THE SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀTHĪ.

Like the Mediate Group of Indo-Aryan vernaculars, the southern one is a group of dialects, and not of languages It includes only one language, viz, Marāthī.

Marāthī with its sub-dialects occupies parts of three provinces, viz, the Bombay

Presidency, Berar, and the Central Provinces, with numerous
settlers in Central India and the Madras Presidency. It is the
principal language of the north-western part of His Highness the Nizam's dominions and of
Portuguese India. The area in which it is spoken is, roughly speaking, 100,000 square

miles.

On the west, Marāthī is bounded by the Arabian Sea, from Daman in the north to

Raiwar in the south. The northern frontier follows the

Daman-Ganga towards the east and crosses Nasik, leaving
the northern part of the district to Khāndešī. It thence runs along the southern and
castern frontier of Khandesh, through the southern part of Nimar, Betul, Chhindwara, and
Seoni, where the Satpura range forms the northern boundary. The frontier line thence
turns to the south-east, including the southern part of Balaghat and almost the whole of
Bliandara, with important settlements in Raipur. The Halbī dialect occupies the central
and castern part of the Bastar State, still farther to the east.

From the south-eastern corner of Bhandara the line runs south-westwards, including Nagpur and the north-western corner of Chanda, where it turns towards the west through the district of Wun, leaving a narrow strip in the south to Telugu. It then continues towards the south, including the district of Basim, and into the dominions of His Highness the Nizam, where it again turns westwards to Akalkot and Sholapur. The frontier then goes south-westwards, in an irregular line, including Sholapur and Kolhapur, to the Ghats, and thence to the sea at Karwar.

Marāthī has to its north, in order from west to east, Gujarātī, Khāndēsī, Rāja
sthūnī, Western Hindī, and Eastern Hindī. To the east we find Eastern Hindī, Gondī, and Telugu Halbī, which is separated from Marāthī by Chhattīsgarhī and Dravidian languages, merges into Oriyā in the east through the Bhatri dialect. In the south we find, proceeding from the east, Gr. Māz-15/lugu, and Kanarese.

dialectic differences within the Marāthī area are comparatively small, and there is only one real dialect, viz, Könkanī. There are, of course, everywhere local varieties, and these are usually honoured by a separate name. On the whole, however, Marāthī is a remarkably uniform language.

Three slightly different forms may conveniently be distinguished, the Marathi of the Dekhan, the Marathi of Berar and the Central Provinces, and the Marathi of the Central and Northern Konkan. The last two forms of the language have some characteristics in common, and these are also shared by the rustic dialects of the Dekhan, such as the form of speech current among the Kun²bis of Poona.

In the southern part of the district of Ratnagiri the Konkan form of Marathi gradually merges into Könkani, through several minor dialects.

Several broken dialects are spoken in various parts of the Marāthī territory, and will be dealt with in connection with the various forms of that language—In the northern part of the coast strip belonging to Marāthī we find some smaller dialects, such as Kāthōdī, Vārlī, Vād'val, Phud'gī, and Sāmvēdī, which in several points agree with Gujarātī-Bhīlī—The Khāndēšī dialect of Khandesh, which has hitherto been classed with Marāthī, has in this Survey been transferred to Gujarātī. It contains a large admixture of Marāthī, but the inner form of the language differs, and its base is a Prākrit dialect more closely related to Saurasēnī than to Māhārāshtīī which latter Prākrit is derived from the same base as modern Marāthī.

Further towards the east we find some broken dialects, such as Katiya, Halbi, Bhunjiā, Nāharī, and Kamārī, which have been so largely influenced by Marāthī that it has been found convenient to deal with them in this connection, though they are no true Marāthī dialects

Marithi, including its dialects, is the home tongue of several districts which are not included in the present Survey, such as the Portuguese territories and part of His Highness the Nizam's dominions. The numbers of speakers of such districts must be added to the figures returned from the various districts within the scope of this Survey.

Speakers of Marāthī in those districts of Central India and the Central Provinces over which the Peshwa and Holkar formerly held sway have been included among the total of those who use the Dekhan form of Marāthī as their home language. The details will be found under the different forms of Marāthī; the total number of speakers of the various forms of the language within the Marāthī territory is as follows:—

Marathi of the	Dekhan							•			6,193,083
Marathi of Bern	r and the	Centra	l Pro	inces	(incln	ding	tho	Nizam'e	domic	(eaon	7,677,132
Marathi of the B	Conkan					•				•	2,350,817
Konkanī (includ	ling Port	nguese	tenit	ories i	and Ma	arlna	Pre	eidene y)	•		1,559,029
									Tore	L	17,780,361

These figures include the speakers of broken dialects in the Konkan and the Central Provinces. The figures for the Nizam's dominions, Portuguese India, and the Madras Presidency have been taken from the reports of the Census of 1891.

Marāthī and its dialects is also, to some extent, spoken outside the territory where it is a vernacular. At the Census of 1801 Marāthī and Könkanī were separately returned. The figures for those districts where Marāthī and Könkanī were spoken as foreign tongues were as follows:—

3	Marat	hī spol	en abre	ad in								N	umber of
Ajmere-M	CTACU	ra.							_				1,60
Andaman	3 .					_					·	·	913
Assam	•									-		•	83
Bengal au	d Te	udator	rics						·		•	•	209
\mathbf{Burmuh}		•					•		÷	•	•	Ċ	565
Coorg	•						:			•	•	•	2,621
$_{L}$	•						·		·	·			123,530
Mysore	•	•	•								•	•	65,356
Panjah ar	d Fe	adato	ries					_	·	·	•	·	551
Quettah		•					·				•	·	1,340
Rajputan	a and	Contr	nl Ind	lia							•	•	11,072
Sind	•											·	9,265
United Pa	гоулдо	es and	l Fen	latorio	. 8					_	•	·	7,414
										•	•	•	
										To:	TAL	•	225,225

Könkani has been returned for the purposes of this Survey as spoken by 20 settlers in Chanda. The other figures which follow have been taken from the reports of the Census of 1891:—

Where spok	eп									N	unber of speakers
Mysore .											4,166
Rajputana											47
Chanda .											20
Coorg .	•	•	•	٠	•		•			-	2,129
								То	TIL		6,362

By adding together all these figures we arrive at the following total for Marāthī and its dialects:—

Marathi spoken at home-

Dekhan							. 6,193,083	
Berai and Central Provinces							7,677,432	
Konkan	•		•	•	٠	•	2,350,817	
Marathi spoken abroad .							16,221,332 225,225	
			r	OTAL	ž talď	TRI		16,446,557
Konkanî spoken at home .							. 1,559,029	, ,
Könkani spoken abroad .	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 6,362	
				_				
			Total Köskani .				•	1,565,391
			GR	AND	TOT.	ΑL		18,011,948

The Prakrit grammarians tell us that at a very early period there were two principal languages spoken in the Ganges and Jamna valleys, Origin of Marathi. Sauraseni in the west and Magadhi in the east. tween both was situated a third dialect, called Ardhamagadhi, which must approximately have covered the territory within which the modern dialects of Eastern Hindi are spoken. These dialects were recognised as the most important forms of speech in Aryavarta, i.e., the country to the north of the Vindhya range and the River Narmada. To the south of Aryavarta was the great country called Maharashtra extending southwards to the Kistna, and sometimes also including the country of the Kuntalas which broadly corresponds to the southern part of the Bombay Presidency and Hyderabad. The la fan is) of Mahārāshtra was considered to be the base of the most important literary P_{le} , with so-called Māhārāshtrī. The South-Indian author Dandin (sixth century A.D., expressly states that the principal Prakrit was derived from the dialect spoken in Mahārāshtra.* And the oldest work in Māhārāshtrī of which we have any knowledge was compiled at Pratishthana, the capital of King Hala on the Godavari is, accordingly, no doubt that the Indian tradition derives the so-called Maharashtri from the vernacular of Mahārāshtra, or, in the terminology of the Prākrit grammariaus, the Māhārāshtra Apabhramsa, from which latter form of speech the modern Marāthī is derived.

^{*} See Kanykdaria 1 85. Maharashtrasi ayam bhasham prakfishtari Prakfitam viduk.

The opinion of the Indian grammarians has not been universally adopted by European scholars, and it will, therefore, be necessary in this place to go into detail in order to

explain my reasons for adhering to it

The arguments generally adduced against the derivation of Marāthī and Māhārāshtrī from the same base are of two kinds. In the first place it is argued that Māhārāshtrī and Saurasēnī are simply two varieties of the same dialect; in the second place it is pointed out that Maiāthī in several respects agrees with eastern vernaculars which must apparently be derived from a Māgadha dialect and not from the old language of the Saurasēna country. It will be seen that both arguments are in reality one and the same, and that if it could be shown that Māhārāshtrī was a quite distinct dialect which differed from Saurasēnī and approached the eastern Prākrits, the analogy which certainly exists between Marāthī and castern vernaculars could no more be adduced against deriving Marāthī and Māhārāshtrī from the same base.

It will, therefore, be necessary to put the supposition of the identity of Māhāiāshtrī and Śaurasēnī to the test

Our knowledge of the Prākrits is to a great extent based on the Prākrit grammarians who were not content to describe the various veinaculars which furnished the base for the literary Prākrits, but who also tried to systematise them, and often seem to have constructed general rules out of stray occurrences or phonetical tendencies. The literary Prākrits in this way came to differ from the spoken vernaculars. They were not, however, mere fictions, and the more we learn about the linguistic conditions of old India, the more we see that the differences stated to exist between the various Prākrit dialects in most cases correspond to actual differences in the spoken vernaculars.

On the other hand, the description given of the various Prākrits by the grammarians is not complete, and must be supplemented from the Prākrit literature. This literature is considerable and it makes it possible to get a good idea of two dialects, the so-called Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī Saurasēnī is less known, though we are able to understand the principal features of that dialect. With regard to Māgadhī we are almost entirely confined to the rules given by the grammarians

Professor Pischel has, in his masterly Prakrit Grammar, collected the materials from the grammarians and from the literature and rendered it a comparatively easy task to define the relationship between the different Prakrits

Classification of the Prakrits

Three different classifications seem to be possible, according to the features which we choose as our starting points.

In some features Sauraseni agrees with Magadhi as against Maharashtri and Northern and Southern Group

Ardhamagadhi The principal ones are the tree composition of single consonants between vowels, and the formation passive and of the conjunctive participle

According to the Präkrit grammarians every Sanskrit unaspirated mute consonant between vowels, if not a cerebral, is dropped in the Präkrits and a faintly sounded y, or, in the case of p or b, a v, is substituted for it. This y is not, however, written in other than Jama manuscripts. It seems certain that this rule of the grammarians was a generalisation of a phonetical tendency and did not exactly correspond to the actual facts of the genuino vernaculars. The tendency to drop consonants in such positions must, however, have been strong, as we find its results largely prevalent in modern vernaculars. Compare Marāthi tumbhar, Sanskrit tumbhar, a potter, Marāthi $tal\tilde{e}$, Sanskrit

ta- $d\bar{a}(g)a$, a tank; Marāthī $s\bar{u}y$, Sanskrit $s\bar{u}(ch)\bar{i}$, a needle; Marāthī $n\bar{e}n^an\bar{o}$, Sanskrit na- $(j)\bar{a}n\bar{a}mi$, I don't know; Marāthī $b\bar{i}$, Sanskrit $b\bar{i}(j)a$, a seed; Marāthī sam(bhar), Sanskrit sa(t)a, hundred; Marāthī $p\bar{a}y$, Sanskrit $p\bar{a}(d)a$, a foot, and so on.

The Prākrit grammarians make one important exception from the rule. A t between vowels becomes d in Saurasēnī and Māgadhī, but is dropped in other dialects. Thus, Sanskrit gata, Saurasēnī and Māgadhī gada, Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī gad, gaya, gone. A t between vowels is very common, and, especially, it occurs in numerous verbal forms. The result is that its different treatment gives a very marked character to the two groups. There cannot, however, be any doubt that this difference is one of time and not of dialect. The d is the intermediary stage between t and the dropping of the sound, and there can be no doubt that a d was really often pronounced in the vernaculars on which Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī were based. For not only does the oldest Prākrit grammarian Vararuchi (ii, 7) allow the change of t to d in Māhārāshtrī in certain words, but the manuscripts freely write d in Māhārāshtrī, a confusion which it would be difficult to explain if the distinction made by the grammarians corresponded to the actual facts in the spoken vernaculars. This point cannot, therefore, be made the basis of a classification.

The passive is formed by adding the suffix 7a in Śaurasēnī and Māgadhī, but ijja in the other dialects. Thus, Sanskrit kriyatē, Śaurasēnī and Māgadhī karīadi, Māhārāshtrī and Aidhamāgadhī karijjai, it is done. This distinction between the two groups has been inferred from the practice of the best manuscripts. There are, however, numerous exceptions, and forms ending in ijyadi, which is a variant of ijjadi, seem to occur in Māgadhī veises. This point cannot therefore be urged

There remains the formation of the conjunctive participle which usually ends in ia in Sauraseni and Māgadhī and in na in Māhārāshtrī and often also in Ardhamāgadhī. This latter dialect has, however, several other forms. Thus, Māhārāshtrī hasiāna, Saurasenī and Māgadhī hasia, having laughed. The subsequent linguistic history of India shows that we are here face to face with a real distinction between the north and the south. The u-form has survived in Marāthī, in some Rājasthānī dialects, and in Oriyā, while other lauguages use forms derived from the old participles ending in ia.

A division of the Prakrits on account of this distinction cannot, however, seriously be maintained, and Sauraseni and Magadhi differ in so many points that it is out of question to bring them into close connection with each other.

Dr. Hoeinle, in his Comparative Grammar of the Gaudian Languages divided the Prâkrit dialects into a western group, viz., Saurasēnī-Māhārāshtrī, and an eastern, viz, Māgadhī These two groups in pronunciation and in the tormation of the nominative singular of masculine able. The western group changes every s-sound to a dental s, the eastern to a palatal δ ; the western substitutes j for every initial j and y, the eastern profess y; the western possesses both r and l, the eastern only l; the nominative singular of masculine a-bases ends in \bar{a} in the west and in \bar{e} in the east. Ardhamāgadhī agrees with the west in all points excepting the last one, the nominative singular of masculine a-bases usually ending in \bar{e} , but also, in old texts in \bar{b}

This last test point, the termination of the nominative, must probably be climinated from the features which distinguish the east from the west, for the most eastern Präkrit dialect of which we have any knowledge, the 50-called Dhakki, which must have been

based on the dialect spoken in Dacca, forms the nominative in \hat{o} ; thus, pulis \hat{o} , a man-This dialect also differs from Māgadhi in the treatment of e-sounds. It possesses a dental ϵ , corresponding to ϵ and ϵh in Sanskrit, and a palatal ϵ , corresponding to Sanskrit ϵ ; thus, daso, ten; pulisassa, Sanskrit purushasya, of the man. Dhakki also seems to use j like the vestern Prākrits—Thus, jampidum, Māgadhi yampidum, Sanskrit jalpitum, to talk.

There thus only remains one of the test points in which the east differs from the west, the use of I and r respectively. I do not think that this point is of sufficient

importance to base a classification on it.

The division of the Präkrits into a western and an eastern group is based on the supposition that Sauruseni and Maharishtri are essentially the same dialect. Since this theory was first put forward our knowledge of the Präkrits has advanced very far, and we now know that the two are radically different. They differ in phonology, in the formation of many verbal bases and of many tenses, in vocabulary, and in their general character. Sauruseni has, on the whole, the same vocabulary as classical Sanskrit, while Mahārāshtri is full of provincial words; the inflexional system of Sauraseni has nothing of the rich variety of forms which characterizes Māhārāshtri. If we add the points of disagreement adduced above, the wide divergence between the two dialects cannot be doubted. The relation between them can be compared to that existing between classical Sanskrit and the Vedic dialects, on the one side the correct and fixed speech of the fishtas, or educated classes, on the other the ever fluctuating, richly varied language of the masses

In these characteristics Mallarishtri agrees with Ardhamigadhi. The close connection between those two Prakrits is so apparent that it has always been recognised. Several scholars have even gone so far as to identify them. Nobody would do so at the present day. There can, however, be no doubt with regard to the close relationship between them, and they may safely be classed together as forming one group as against Sauraseni

Ardhamigadhi is the link which connects Māhārāshtrī with Māgadhī. This latter Prākrit is very unsatisfactorily known. It seems to comprise several dialects, but we are not, as yet, able to get a clear idea of them. In phonetics they seem to have struck out independent lines of their own. There are, however, sufficient indications to show that they had more points of analogy with Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī than would appear at the first glance. I pass by some points of phonology, and shall only draw attention to a few facts which seem to show that Māgadhī is based on a dialect, or on dialects, which had an inflexional system characterized with the same rich variety of forms as in Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī

Māgadhī has preserved traces of the old dative of a-themes, which has been trongtout replaced by the genitive in Saurasēnī. Thus, vinākāa, Sanskrit vinākāya, in destroy. Such forms are, however, perhaps only correct in verses. There are two sams of the genitive singular and three forms of the locative singular of a-bases; thus, puttaka and puttāha. Sanskrit putrasya, Saurasēnī only puttassa, of the son; muhē. Sanskrit muhhē, in the mouth; kūvammi, Sanskrit kūpē, in the well, kulāhim. Sanskrit kulē, in the family. Šaurasēnī has only forms such as kulē.

The Ātmanēpada form of verbs, which in Saurasēnī is confined to the first person singular, is used more freely in Māgadhī; optatives such as Larryyā, I may do, occur in Māgadhī as well as the Saurasēnī forms Larēam or Larē; imperatīves such as pivāhi, drink, are used in addition to piva, Sauskiit piba, but not so in Saurasēnī

A suffix corresponding to the *illa*, which plays a great rôle in Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī, but not in Śaurasēnī, must have been common in Māgadhī, as the modern vernaculars clearly show Compare also Māgadhī *gāmēlua*, Sanskrit *grāmya*, boorish.

Such instances might be multiplied if we could draw the Māgadhī of the inscriptions and Pāli into the scope of our inquiry. The preceding indications are, however, sufficient to show that the general character of the Māgadhī dialects was more closely related to that of Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī than that of Saurasēnī. We seem therefore to be justified in dividing the Prākrits into one inner group, viz, Saurasēnī, and one outer comprising Māhārāshtrī, Ardhamāgadhī, and Māgadhī. This latter group shows great variety in its dialects, but has throughout the same character of inflexional richness.

There cannot, then, any more be any objection to the derivation of Māhārāshtrī and Mārathī from the same base, and we must return to the Indian tradition and to the conclusion that Māhārāshtrī and Marāthī are based on the same form of speech just as the two names, Māhārāshtrī and Marāthī, are two different forms of one and the same word.

It is now permissible to draw attention to several points in which Marāthī agrees with Māhārāshtrī. When similar forms also occur in other modern vernaculars, especially in the east, this fact is only in accord with the remarks above. Even Western Hindī forms can often be adduced which agree with Marāthī and Māhārāshtrī as against Śaurasēnī. This is partly to be explained by assuming that Western Hindī is derived from various sources. Though it is, in its general character, a Śaurasēna dialect, it has also assimilated elements from other, say outer, forms of speech. Māhārāshtrī was, moreover, once the dialect of lyric poetry all over India, and it must necessarily have exercised an influence on other dialects, such as that spoken in the home of the present Western Hindī.

Māhārāshtrī has been preserved in two slightly varying forms, the chief language of Prākrit literature, and the dialect of the non-canonical literature of the Śvētāmbara Jains. This latter form of the language is usually called Jaina Māhārāshtrī, and was perhaps based on the vernacular spoken in Surāshtra, the modern peninsula of Kathiawar, before the present settlers entered it. The difference between the two forms of Māhārāshtrī is, however, of comparatively small importance and need not trouble us in this connection

In comparing Maratha with Maharashta, we cannot base our inquiry on the vocabulary. In the first place we know too little of Saurasana and Magadha, and in the second place, the vocabulary of modern Aryan vernaculars does not differ to any considerable extent. A comparison of the inflexions will also yield but a small result, the modern system being quite different from that prevailing in the old Prakrits. It will have the constant to base our conclusions on those facts in which the old Prakrits are king the difference can be traced down to modern times. We shall begin with some phonetical features.

Long vowels are occasionally shortened in Maharashtra. Thus, in the common word

Long vowels are occasionally shortened in Māhārāshtrī. Thus, in the common word kumarō, Sanskrit and Śaurasēnī kumārō, a boy. Comparo Marāthī kumar, which is not a poetical form. Other dialects

have kũwar and kũwār.

Haridrā, turmeric, often becomes haliddī or haladdī in Māhārāshtrī. Compare Marāṭhī halad, dative hal'dī-lā, rural Hindī halad, haldī, hardī.

The Sanskrit vowel ri is sometimes differently treated in the old dialects. Thus, Sanskrit krita, Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī kaa (compare Māgadhī, Ardhamāgadhī

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kada), but Śaurasēnī usually kida, done; Sanskrit ghrīta, Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī ghaa, but Śaurasēnī and Māgadhī ghida, clarified butter. Similarly we find Marāthī kēlē, i.e., kaya-illaam, done, while ghī, clarified butter, according to Molesworth is scarcely used in Marāthī and must be considered as a Hindī lonn-word.

Soft consonants are occasionally hardened in the Präkrits. Thus, Mähäräshtri machchai and majjai, Sanskrit mädyati, he grows mad:

Mähäräshtri vachchai for vajjai, Sanskrit rrajati, he goes

Compare Marathi mats ne (Hindi mach na), to swell; Konkani votsu, to go.

The aspiration has been transferred in the Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī ghettun, Sanskrit grahātum, to take Samasēnī has genhidum. The base occurring in the Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī forms has only survived in Marāthī. Compare ghēt lē, taken.

Dental consonants are much more commonly cerebralised in Māhārāshtrī, Ardhamāgadhī, and also in Māgadhī, than in Śaurasēnī — Compare Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī dasat, Sanskrit dašati, he bites, dahat, Sanskrit dahati, he burns; dōla, an eye (compare Sanskrit dōla, oscillating), dollat, Sanskrit dōlāyatē, he swings; dōhalaa, Sanskrit dōhalala, the longings of a pregnant woman. Similarly we find Marāthī dasanē, to bite; dāhō (poetical), heat; dādēnē, to be hot; dōlā, an eye, dōhala, longings of a pregnant woman, etc. Similar forms occur also in other dialects.

We may add stray forms such as Sanskrit Lshētra, Māhārīshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī chhetta, Marāthī šēt, but Šaurasēnī Lhetta, Hindi Lhēt, a field; Māhārīshtrī kira, Marāthī Līr, but Šaurasēnī and Sanskrit kita, forsooth; Sanskrit gardabha, Māhārāshtrī gaddaha, Maiāthī gādhav, but Šaurasēnī gaddaha, Hindī gadhā, an ass, Sanskrit paūrhāšat, Māhārāshtrī pannāsam, Marāthī pannās, while other modern vernaculars have forms such as Western Hindī pachās

The termination of the nominative singular of mosculine a-bases was \tilde{o} in Māhārāshtrī and Saurasēnī. The same is the case in old Marāthī, thus, $i\tilde{a}r\tilde{o}$, a king; nandanu, a son. The final u in the latter form is directly derived from an older \tilde{o}

The genitive of a-bases, with which old in-bases were confounded, ends in issa and ino in Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī, but only in ino in Saurasēnī; thus, aggissa and agginō, Sanskrit agnēh, of the fire, hatthissa and hatthinō, Sanskrit hastmah, of an elephant The form hatthissa directly corresponds to Marāthī hāthīs.

With regard to pionouus we may note that the typical Māhārāshtrī forms majjha, my; tnjjha, thy, have survived in Marāthī $m\bar{a}dzh\bar{a}$, my; $tudzh\bar{a}$, thy.

Verbs
The Marāthī verb shows something of the same rich as the Māhārāshtrī one.

Thus we not only find the old present, future, and imperative, but also some traces of the precative.

Comparedēkhē indriyã ādhīna śītōslīnā∙t⋛ hōijē, taĩ of-senses cold-and-heat 800 dependent he may become, .then pavije āni sukhaduhkh? ākalnē āpana-pe; he-will-get and with-pleasure-and-sorrow he-will-bind himself:

^{&#}x27;Sec, if a man is dependent on his senses, then he will feel cold and heat and become subject to the feeling of pleasure and sorrow' (*Dnyānēkvarī*, ii, 119). Such forms have

usually been explained as passives, by assuming that the old passive can also be used as an active. The explanation given above seems, however, in some cases preferable.

The old passive survives in forms such as $l\bar{a}bh^{a}v\tilde{e}$, to be got; $dis^{a}n\tilde{e}$, to appear, and so on. In old poetry, however, a passive formed with the characteristic j is in common use; thus, $vadhijat\bar{i}$, they are killed; $kij\bar{e}$, it is done. Such forms have been confounded with the remains of the old precative, and both were probably felt to be identical. In modern Marāthī only the forms $mhav^{a}j\bar{e}$, it is said, namely; and $p\bar{a}hij\bar{e}$, it is wanted, have survived.

It is of importance to note that such forms correspond to the Māhārāshtrī passive ending in *ijjau*, while Śaurasēnī has *īadi*.

Marāthī infinitives such as $m\bar{a}r\tilde{u}$, to strike, are directly derived from Māhārāshtrī forms such as $m\bar{a}r\iota um$, to strike. The participle of necessity, which ends in avva in Māhārāshtrī, tavya in Sanskrit, has survived in most modern dialects, sometimes as a future or an infinitive, as in eastern dialects, sometimes as a present participle passive as in Sindhī. Marāthī, as well as Gujarātī, uses forms derived from this participle as infinitives, but has also retained it in its original meaning of a future participle passive. Thus, Marāthī $my\bar{a}$ $kar\bar{a}v\bar{c}$, Māhārāshtrī $ma\bar{e}$ kariavvam, it should be done by me, I should do.

The Marāthī conjunctive participle in $\bar{u}n$, old Marāthī \tilde{u} and u- $ni\tilde{a}$, i.e $\tilde{u} + ni\tilde{a}$, is derived from the corresponding Māhārāshtrī form ending in $\bar{u}na$ and um, and has nothing to do with the Saurasēnī form which adds ia Thus, Sanskrit $kritv\bar{u}$, Māhārāshtrī kariuna, karium, Marāthī $kar\tilde{u}$, $karum\tilde{a}$, $karum\tilde{a}$, karun, but Saurasēnī kariu and kadua.

We may add the frequency with which the suffix illa is used in Māhārāshtrī and probably all eastern Prākrits, just as its modern representative l in Marāṭhī, aud, lastly, the use of the emphatic particle Māhārāshtrī and Ardhamāgadhī chēa, chia, .cheha, Marāṭhī chi, ta, Chhattīsgarhī ēch, but Śaurasēnī jēva, Gujarātī and Rājasthānī j.

Such points of agreement cannot fail to add strength to the conclusion that Mähäräshtrī Prākrit was based on the vernacular of the Marāthā country, which is the direct source from which modern Marāthī is derived.

Marathi is the only modern vernacular which has been derived from the old Maharāshtra Apabhramsa. That latter form of speech had a dis-Place of Marathi in reference to other Indo Aryan vernaculars tinet character of its own. Though being of the same general kind as the eastern vernaculars, it differed from them in several points and sometimes agreed with Sauraseni, especially in the pronunciation of certain The modern representative of the old Māhārāshtra Apabhramśa is Marāthī, and it is, therefore, to be expected that that form of speech occupies a somewhat independent pc in sometimes agreeing with the languages of the outer, and sometimes with those of the par group. That is also the case. Moreover, the conservative character of Marathi has tended to make this independence greater than it was, and at the present day Marathi is a language with very well marked frontiers, and does not merge into any of the neighbouring forms of speech. The border line between Marathi on one side and Gujarāti, Rājasthānī and Western Hindī on the other, is very sharply marked. In the west we see that Gujarātī Bhīlī and Khāndēśī gradually become more and more influenced by Marāthī. But even when such dialects assume the linguistic form of Marāthī, as in the case of Vadeval, Varli, etc., they retain the character of mixed forms of speech and are no real connecting links. Similar is the state of affairs in the east. The Halbi dialect is not a connecting link between Marathi, Chhattisgarhi and Oriya, but a

mechanical mixture of all these three languages, spoken by a tribe whose language did not originally belong to the Indo-Aryan Family.

Relation of Marathi to the in. It has already been stated that Marathi in some points agrees with the languages of the inner group. The principal

ones are as follows --

The pronunciation generally. In Könkanī, however, we find some features which agree with the state of affairs in the east. Thus Könkanī possesses the short c and o sounds and pronounces the short a like the o in 'hot.'

Marāthī has two s-sounds, a dental s and a palatal s. This latter sound is used before y and before i, 7, and \bar{e} , which vowels are usually pronounced almost as yi, $y\bar{e}$, respectively, a state of affairs which is not in accord with the principles prevailing in the east. The palatal pronunciation of s is, therefore, due to the combination of s and y, and quite different from the Bengali k, which has another origin as the eastern Prākrits clearly show. Some Marāthī dialects only know the dental s.

The pronunciation of the palatals as \underline{ts} , \underline{dz} , respectively, also occurs in some eastern dialects, and in Kūsmīnī A similar pronunciation is common in several dialects of Gujarāti and Rājasthānī Exact parallels to the Marāthī pronunciation of s and of the palatals are only found in Telugu Such points do not, therefore, prove a closer connexion between the pronunciation of Marāthī and of eastern vernaculais.

On the other hand, v and b are distinguished as in Gujarātī, Pañjābī, Sindhi, and, partly, in Rājasthānī. Murāthī has a cerebral l like Rājasthānī, Gujarātī, Pañjābī, and also Oriyā.

With regard to the inflexion of nouns and verbs, it should be noted that Marāthī has three genders like Gujarātī and some rural dialects of Western Ḥindī.

The nominative singular of strong masculine bases ends in \tilde{a} as in the east and in some dialects of Western Hindi, but in \tilde{o} in Könkani. The nominative plural ends in \tilde{e} as in Western Hindi.

Marāthī possesses a separate case of the agent and, in consequence thereof, uses the passive construction of the past tense of transitive verbs. The verb is put in the neuter singular if the object is accompanied by a case suffix. In the Konkan, however, it agrees with the object also in such cases, just as it does in Gujarātī and Rājasthānī. Konkanī also agrees with Gujarātī in possessing a separate form of the nominative singular of the personal pronoun of the first person; thus Konkanī $h\tilde{a}v$, Gujarātī $h\tilde{a}v$, J.

The nominative singular masculine of demonstrative and relative pronouns ends in \bar{o} as in Western Hindi, like the nominative of masculine a-bases in Mähäräshtri.

Marathi uses an n-suffix to form a verbal noun, as does also Western Hind as same suffix, however, also occurs in Eastern Hindi, and Marathi has also a v in the relative Gujarati and eastern vernaculars

None of these points are of sufficient importance to prove a closer connexion between Marathi and the languages of the inner group. They are partly due to the conservative nature of the language, as in the case of the preservation of a separate case of the agent, and they are partly of the same nature as those features in which Māhānāshtrī agreed with Saurasēnī.

In other points Marāthī agrees with the languages of the outer circle. The points

Relation of Marāthī to the of analogy in pronunciation have already been noted, and it has been stated that they are of relatively small importance.

On the other hand, the preceding pages dealing with the relationship between Marāthī and Māhārāshtrī will have revealed many facts which show that the phonetical laws of Marāthī often closely agree with those prevailing in the cast. Of greater importance, however, are several points of analogy in inflexion.

All weak a-bases in Marāthī have an oblique form ending in \bar{a} ; thus, $b\bar{a}p$, a father, dative $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$. The same form also occurs in the east. Thus, Bihārī pahar, a guard, oblique $pah^{a}r\bar{a}$. The eastern vernaculars do not, it is true, use this form regularly. Its existence is, however, of sufficient importance to be adduced in this place. Marāthī also shows the origin of this form. In addition to the oblique base ending in \bar{a} , it also, dialectically, uses a form ending in $\bar{a}s$; thus, in the Konkan, $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}s-na$, by the father. $B\bar{a}p\bar{a}s$ directly corresponds to the Māhārāshtrī form bappassa, of a father, and it is evident that $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ has the same origin, the change of ss to h being already found in Māhārāshtrī.

The termination of the second person singular of verbal tenses ends in s as in Bengali, Bihārī, and Eastern Hindī. Könkanī, however, uses y like Kāśmīrī, and in Berar and the Central Provinces the second person is usually formed like the third person without an s.

The past tense has different forms for the three persons, as in eastern dialects. The personal suffixes are the same as in the case of the old present, and it is, therefore, doubtful whether Marāthī possesses the so-called pronominal suffixes which play so great a rôle in many outer languages. The s which is, in some dialects, added to the second person singular of all verbs, may perhaps be such a suffix. In a similar way we sometimes find a t added to the second person plural, and an n to the third person singular. Compare forms such as $karit\tilde{e}s$, it was done (by thee); $s\tilde{a}hgit^al\tilde{a}n$ (Konkan and Berar), it was said (by him). Such forms are, however, only occasionally used, and the whole question about pronominal suffixes must be left open so far as Marāthī is concerned

The past tense is formed by adding an *l*-suffix as in the east. This feature pervades the whole conjugational system and gives a peculiar colour to the language which is entirely wanting in the inner group. Gujarātī, it is true, forms a pluperfect participle by adding an *l*-suffix. This seems, however, to be one of those points in which that language has been influenced by the vernaculars formerly spoken in its present home. The *l*-suffix must be derived from the Prākrit suffix *illa* which played a great rôle in Māhārāshtrī, Ardhamāgadhī, and probably also in Māgadhī. It is a secondary suffix, added to the old past participle passive, and it is, consequently, originally not necessary. We also find that it is occasionally dropped, not only in the east, but also in Marāthī dialects; thus, Chitpāvanī māy^arā and mārītā, it was struck. On the other hand, this suffix is used in a much wider way in Kōnkanī. The oldest instance of its use in the might way is the Ardhamāgadhī ānilliya, brought.

The future is formed by adding an l- or n-suffix. This form has been compared with the l-present in Bihārī. An l-future also occurs in Rājasthānī and some northern dialects. The base of the Marāthī future is identical with the habitual past, the old present. Sometimes, however, the two differ; thus Nāgpurī $nidz\bar{o}$, I used to sleep, but nidzal, I shall sleep; Karhādī $m\bar{a}r^al\bar{b}$, thou wilt strike (the corresponding form of the habitual past does not occur in the materials available). It is, therefore, perhaps allowable to conclude that the Marāthī future (and past habitual) has preserved traces of two old forms, the present and future. Māhārāshtrī future forms such as larihisi, thou wilt do; larihii, he will do, would regularly become $larl\bar{b}$ and $larl\bar{b}$.

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The most important points in which Marāthī agices with eastern vernaculars are thus the oblique form of weak a-bases, the termination of the second person singular of verbal tenses, the distinguishing of the various persons in the past tense, and the *l*-suffix of the same form. These points are of sufficient importance to justify us in stating a closer relationship between Marāthī and the languages of the east. It should, however, be borne in mind that all these characteristics can be explained from the features of Māhārāshtrī Prākrit.

In many points Marāthī differs from all other Indo-Aryan vernaculars. We may mention the almost universal use by nouns of a distinct oblique base; the dative in s; the genitive suffix \underline{tsa} ; the possessive pronouns $m\bar{a}\underline{dz}h\bar{a}$, my; $tu\underline{dz}h\bar{a}$, thy; the numeral $pann\bar{a}s$, fifty; the conjunctive participle ending in $\bar{a}n$ (compare, however, Oriyā), and so on.

The position of Marāthī as compared with other Indo-Aryan vernaculars may, therefore, be defined as follows. In some points it has developed peculiar forms of its own; in others it agrees with the languages of the inner group, more especially, in pronunciation; and in important points of

inflexion it forms one group with the eastern vernaculars of the outer circle.

In the Konkan there are important points of agreement with Gujarātī, a fact which may perhaps be accounted for by the supposition that the Maiāthī-speaking inhabitants of the Konkan once occupied the modern Gujarat, and only settled in the Konkan after having lived for some time in the neighbourhood of the Gujarātīs. The tradition according to which their original home was Trihōtra may be a faint recollection of such a migration.

The Marāthā country has long been famous for its literature. The Vaidaibhī Rīti,

Marāthī Literature the literary style of the Berar school of Sanskrit writers, was highly praised by Dandin, as far superior to the artificial style

of the east, the Gaudiyā Rīti The old Māhārāshtrī lyries fully justify this praise, and later poets such as Rājašākhara proudly mention Mahārāshtra as Sarasiatī-janma-bhūh, the birth-place of the goddess of eloquence, where the sweet and serene, the graceful and agreeable, nectar of poetry is found. We cannot in this place give even a rapid survey of the Prākrit and Sanskirt literature connected with Mahārāshtra. We must be content to give a short account of the later literature in Marāthī

The revival of literature in the Maratha country is, just as is the case elsewhere in India, closely connected with the religious renaissance which can be traced from the time of Sankara down to the present day. The oldest Maratha literature is, therefore, religious. It is due to the wish to make the religious thoughts and ideas of the old Sankara literature accessible to those who were not masters of any language other than their own vernacular. Sanskrit works were, therefore, translated and free paraphrases were made. The bulk of Maratha literature is of this description, and like its prototype, it is writted in verse. Prose compositions are later, and have not played the same rôle.

For the lustory of Marāthī literature and the development of the Marāthī language it is of importance to note that almost all its poets have come from the Dekhan and the country round Parthan. The Konkan and Berar do not claim a single name of importance

The beginning of Maiāthī literature seems to be connected with the Vishnuite reformation inaugurated by Rāmānuja (beginning of the twelfth century). To him Vishnu was the 'Supreme Deity, endowed with every possible gracious attribute, full of love and pity for the sinful beings who adore him, and granting the released soul after death a home of cternal bliss near him'

The same religious devotion to Vishņu, or, as he calls him Vithōbā, meets us in the Abhangs¹ of Nāmdēv, who is considered to be the first Marāthī poet. He was a tailor from Pandharpur, and probably flourished in the middle of the thirteenth century. Most of his works have been lost, but some of his stanzas have found their way into the Ādagranth of the Sikhs, and they can still impress us with his devotion to God, for whom he longs 'as the Chakravāka longs for his mate or a child for its mother.'

A contemporary of Nāmdēv was Dnyānēbā, or Dnyānēśvar who wrote a paraphrase of the $Bhagavadgīt\bar{a}$ in the $Ov\bar{\imath}$ metre. He lived at Alandi, north of Poona, and his work, the $Dnyānēśvar\bar{\imath}$ or $Bh\bar{a}v\bar{a}rthad\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}$, is dated Śaka 1212 = 1280 A D. This work is very highly esteemed among the Marāthās—It is penetrated by deep religious feeling, but is also pervaded with the barren philosophy of later Hinduism.

The poet Mukundarāya probably belongs to the same age. His best known work is the *Vivēka-Sındhu*, or Ocean of Discrimination, which is strongly influenced by orthodox Vedantism.

The next important poet whose works have been preserved is Ekanāth, a Rīgvēdin from Paithan, who died in 1609. His favourite metre was the Ovī, but he also wrote Abhangs. His principal works are based on Sanskrit originals and are devoted to the praise of Vishau. His Ekanāthī Bhāgavata is based on the 11th Skanda of the Bhāgavata-Purāna, and has been printed in Bombay. He further wrote the Bhāvārtha-Rāmāyana, the Ruhmini-Svayamvara, the Svātmasukha, etc., and also composed works in Hindōstānī. He was a contemporary of Shāhjī, the father of Sivajī, and is spoken of as an ardent student of the Dnyānēšvarī.

His daughter's son was Muktesvar, who was born in 1600, and lived at Paithan. He is often spoken of as the master of the $O\iota\bar{\iota}$ metre, and his principal works are paraphrases of Sanskrit originals. He wrote part of a $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$, a $Bh\bar{a}yavata$, a $Satamulha-R\bar{a}van\bar{a}hhy\bar{a}na$, and, according to tradition, also a $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$.

We have now come down to the time of Śivajī, the founder of the Marāthā power. This national hero, who is usually known as a rude and treacherous warrior, was himself influenced by the growing Marāthī literature, and its greatest poet courted his favour. He sat as a pupil at the feet of Rāmdās (1608-1681), the son of a Kulkarni in Jamb at the Godavari, who spent his life in devotion to Rāma, and hence changed his name Nārāyan to Rāmdās. Sivajī is said at one time to have offered him his whole kingdom, but Rāmdās declined the offer, and continued till his death to live as an unmarried devotee. The principal work of this author is the Dāsbōdh, on religious duties, and he also wrote numerous Abhanys and Ślōkas.

f. Tukātām (1608-1649) was born at Dehu, a small village to the north of Poona, and his father is said to have been a Śūdra. By profession he was a waudering reciter of Kathās or religious stories and legends, and he is considered to have brought the Abhang to the highest perfection. His poetry is devoted to the praise of Vithōbā. Religious longing and devotion, affectionate love and moral purity, are the keynotes of his verses, many of which are also remarkable for the sincere consciousness they exhibit of the idea of sin,—an expression of religious faith rarely met with in older literature, but which was in later times imitated by poets such as Mahīpati.

[&]quot;Abhang' is the name of a metro. The word means 'unbroken,' and refers to the poems being of Indefinite length, and to the loose, flowing, nature of the rhythin.

A contemporary of Tukārām was Vāman Pandit (died 1673), a Rigvēdin from Satara, who studied in Benares, and also wrote in Sanskiit. His style is heavy, and the predilection for yamakas and other artificial embellishments show the growing influence of the Sanskiit $K\bar{a}vya$. He wrote a commentary on the $Bhagavadgīt\bar{a}$ in the $Ov\bar{\epsilon}$ metre, called the $Yath\bar{a}vthad\bar{\epsilon}pik\bar{a}$, and numerous works based on the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$, the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$, the $Bh\bar{a}gavata$, and so on.

Śrīdhar (1678-1728), the most copious of all Marātha poets, was a Biāhman from the neighbourhood of Pandharpur. His works were mostly based on the Sanskrit epics and on the Purānas, and are highly popular. Some of the titles are Rāmavijaya, Harir ijaya,

Pāndavapratāpa, Šivalīlāmrila, and so on.

Amiltarāya, who was a Dēśastha Brāhman, lived in Aurangahad about the middle of the eighteenth century. He was renowned as a sīghrakavi, and wrote also in Hindōstānī. His works are partly based on the Purānas, and are partly of a more metaphysical description. They abound in various kinds of alliterations. Like Tukārām he used to perform recitations.

A younger contemporary of Americarāya was Möröpənt or Mayūra Pandıt (1729-1794), a Karhādā Brāhman from Baramati in the Poona district. As a boy he acquired considerable proficiency in Sanskrit, in which language he also wrote some poems. His Marāthā works are largely influenced by Sanskrit poetry. He used all the antificial apparatus of Sanskrit rhetoric, and ficely introduced Sanskrit words into his Marāthā. His works, which include a Bhārata, a Bhāgavata, several Rāmāyanas, a Mayūrakēkāvalī, and so forth, are held in high estimation among his countrymen, but are less palatable to European taste.

Mahipati (1715-1790), a Dēśastha Brāhman of the Rigvēdins from Tahrabad near Paithan, was an imitator of Tukārām, but his chief importance rests on the fact that he collected the popular traditions about national saints, and put them in a poetical form. His various works, such as the Bhaktavijaya, the Bhaktavijāya, the Santavijāya, the Santavijāya, the Santavijāya, are usually described as the Acta Sanctorum of the Marāthās. They are partly based on older works by Nābhājī and Udbhayachidgan, but partly also on oral tradition, and narrate the miraculous life and doings of older deified poets such as Dnyānōbā and Tukārām.

There are, besides, a great many minor poets, such as Chintāmani, Raghimāth (end of eighteenth century), Prabhākara and others, who mainly based their poems on the Puiānas, the Mahābhārata, and the Rāmāyana—It is not, however, possible to enter into details.

Almost all the Marāthī poetry mentioned on this and the preceding pages is religious. Erotic lyrics have, however, also been highly appreciated by the Marāthās from the earliest times. We possess a precious testimony to this leaning of the national mind in the famous Sattasaī of Hāla. In modern Marāthī the crotic poetry is principally represented by the so-called Lāvanīs, small ballads usually put into the mouths of women, and often of a rather scandalous description. Among the authors of Lāvanīs we may mention Anantaphandī (1744-1819), a Yajurvēdin from Ahmadnagar, who also mis-used his poetical genius in lavishing praise on Bājī Rāō, the last Peshwa, and Rāmjōšī (1762-1812), a Dēšastha Brāhman from Sholapur. In this connection we may also mention the Naukā Krīdan of Višvanāth, and the Anangarang of Kalyāna Mala.

¹ A fighralate is a poet who is able to compare a poem on any topic without preparation or delay, an improvisators or extemporising pect

The feats of the national heroes from Śivaji and downwards, have furnished materials for numerous $P\tilde{a}v\tilde{a}d\tilde{a}s$, or war-ballads, mostly by nameless poets, which are sung everywhere in the country. Lastly, the numerous proverbs current among the Marāthās should be noticed. A good selection has been published by Manwaring. See Authorities below.

The prose literature in Marāṭhī is of much smaller importance. It embraces narratives of historical events, the so-called Bakhars; moral maxims such as the Vētāl Pantsvīšī, the Simhāsan Battīšī, the Šuk Bāhattarī, and so forth. In modern times a copious literature of prose works has arisen, mainly translations from English, and several journals and newspapers in Marāthī are published, chiefly in Bombay and Poona.

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A.—Early references.

Mahārāshtra as the name of a country, does not seem to occur before the sixth century A.D., when it is mentioned by Varāhamihira in his $Brihat\text{-}Samhit\bar{a}$, v, 61. The reference to the language of Mahārāshtra as the base of the principal Prākrit in Dandin's $K\bar{a}iy\bar{a}darka$, i, 35, belongs to about the same time.

The name was also known to the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang, to Albitūnī, and tors Ziāu-'d-dīn Barni See the references in Yule's Hobson-Jobson, s. v. Mahratta.

The first reference to Māhārāshtrī as the name of a language seems to be in Vararuchi's Prākrit Grammar, the date of which cannot be ascertained. Other grammarians simply use *Prākritam*, i.e., the Prākrit language, instead.

Later authors, such as Rāmatarkavāgīša and Kramadīšvara, mention a dialect called Dakshinatya as a form of Apabham'a, i.e., in this connection, as one of the vernaculars of India. Dākshinātyā is, in the Sāhitya Darpana stated to be identical with Vaidarbhikā, the vernacular of Berar. Dākshinātyā is usually mentioned together with Māgadhī and Aidhamāgadhī and Professor Lassen was therefore inclined to class it with those dialects. We are not, however, told that Dakshinatya has any characteristics of its own. On the contrary, Markandeya expressly states that Dakshinatya is not a separate dialect, lakshanākaranāt, because it has no characteristic marks of its own. It is, therefore, impossible to base anything upon the names Dakshinatya and Vaidarbhika. They may, or may not, correspond to the modern Dakhini and Varhadi, the dialects of the Dekhan and Berar respectively. Modern Marāthī is, at all events, so old that the mention of Dākshnātyā and Vaidarbhikā can refer to it. The oldest Marathī inscription of which anything is known, goes back to about A D 1115-S, and an inscription of some extent is dated A.D. 1207. Compare Epigraphia Indica, Vol. i, pp. 313 and f.; Vol. vii, p. 109. It should be mentioned that a reference to the dialect of the Dakshinatyas, or Southerners. occurs in the Miichelhakatika, where we are told that it was no distinct form of speech. On account of their knowledge of various aboriginal languages the Dakshinatyas are said to speak as they thought proper. The passages which might be expected to illustrate this dialect are, however, written in Sauraseni.

The first mention of the Maratha country in Europe seems to be found in Friar Jordanus' Mirabilia Descripta (c. 1328). The passage containing the reference has been reprinted in Yule's Mobson-Jobson, l. c, and is as follows:—

^{&#}x27;e 1323. "In this Greater India are twelve idelatious Kings, and more . . . There is also the Kingdom of Maratha which is very great"—Friar Jordanus, 41.

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The same authority also reproduces the earliest mention of the Marāthī language of which I am aware—It has been taken from John Fryer's—A New Account of East India and Persia, London, 1698, and it is dated 1673.—It is as follows:—

'1673 "They tell their tale in Moratty by Profession they are Gentues "-Fryer, 174"

Other old references to the Marathas and their country will be found in Hobson-Jobson. They may here be left out of consideration, and we shall turn to early mentions of the language.

The Konkan form of Marāthī was early dealt with by Portuguese missionaries, who called it the northern dialect of Kōnkanī. A paraphrase of the contents of the Gospels in that language by Francisco Vas de Guimaraens, was printed in 1659, and a grammar by an unknown missionary was completed in the seventeenth century. See the authorities quoted under Konkan Standard below, p. 65.

The Könkani dialect was described at a still earlier date. The old references will be found among the authorities dealing with that form of speech. See p. 160

Marāthī itself began to occupy European scholars early in the eighteenth century. It was considered to comprise two dialects, Balabande and Marāthī. In reality, however, these are only the two common characters used in writing Marāthī, Balabande corresponding to the Bālbōdh and Marāthī to the Mōḍī character.

Marāthī does not seem to be represented in the translations of the Lord's Prayer published by Joh Chamberlayne in 1715. La Croze in a letter to Theophilus Siegfried Bayer dated November, 1731, mentions Marāthī as Marathica lingua, also called Balabande. He rightly remarks that the written character is identical with Dēvanāgarī. See Thesaurus epistolicus Lacrozianus, Vol. iii, Lipsiae 1746, p 64, where a specimen of the written character is given. La Croze derives the alphabet from Hebrew.

In the same work, Vol i, Lipsiae 1742, p. 338, is printed a letter from Benj Schultze, the well-known author of one of the first Hindostani grammars, who for some time lived as a missionary in Madras The letter is dated the 28th January 1734, and it contains the meidental remark that Schultze had sent specimens in the Devanagari and Balabande languages to Europe We learn from other sources that he furnished translations of the Lord's Prayer into Maratha. His manuscripts were preserved in Leipzig, and afterwards published in several collections, for the first time in the Orientalisch- und Occidentalischer Sprachmeister of Johann Friedrich Fritz This book which was printed at Leipzig. 1718, was an enlarged reprint of a similar work by Johann Heinrich Hager, published in Leipzig, 1741, which is, in its turn, based on older collections by Andreas Muller. The Sprachmeister was, however, revised by the Danish Missionary Benj. Schultze, just mentioned, who added 15 Indian specimens from his own collections It accordingly contains the Modi character on pp 01 and ff. which is called Marathicum Alphabeigm. On pp 120 and ff some remarks on Hindostani taken from Schultze's Grammalica Hindostanica, have been printed We are here told that the Balabandish and Marathick language is a daughter of the Demanagara language, that is of Sanskrit. P. 121 gives the Balabandu, i.e, the Balbodh character. On p 206, we find the first ten numerals in Marathi figures. Between pp. 212 and 213 is inserted a comparative vocabulary called Tabula exhibens harum linguarum affinitatem et differentiam fifth and sixth columns in this table contain some words in Marathi, with the headings Marathice and Balabandice, respectively. The two columns are identical Column 9 contains the same words in Konkani, Cuncanice. To the Sprachmeister is annexed a collection of versions of the Lord's Prayer. It includes the Lord's Prayer in Goanica, p. 85; Balabandeca, p. 90; and Marathica, p. 93, all by Schultze The Sprachmeister furnishes the materials for the mention of the 'Marathica' and 'Balabandeca' languages in the Alphabetum Brammhamcum sev Indostanum universitatis Kast. Rome, 1761, p. ix This work, which was published by the Congregatio de Propaganda Fide, was soon followed by the Grammatica Marasta, Rom., 1778, and a Catechismo da Doutrina Cristam, Rom., 1778, in Portuguese and Marāthi.

From about the same time is Iwarus Abel's Symphona symphona, sive undecim Linguarum orientalium Discors exhibita Concordia, Tamulicæ videlicet . . . Marathicæ, Balabandicæ . . . Cuncanicæ . . . Kopenhagen, 1782.

Lorenzo Heivas y Panduro, a Spanish Jesuit from Galizia, also dealt with Marāthī in his huge cyclopedia Idea del Universo, Cesena, 1778-87. The twentieth volume has the title Focabulario poligiotto con Prolegomeni sopra più di el Lingue, Cesena, 1787, and contains a comparison of 63 words in 154 languages. The Marāthī portion is printed on p 163. The ensuing volume, the twenty-first, is a collection of versions of the Lord's Prayer in more than 300 languages and dialects. The title of this part is Saggio prattico delle Lingue con Prolegomeni e una Raccolta di Orazioni Dominicali in più di trecento Lingue e Dialetti. It contains a Marāthī version on p. 143, and a Goanese one on p. 145, both after Benj. Schultze, and also, on p. 146, another Marāthī version, after the Catechism, mentioned above.

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The Scriptures were partly translated into Marāthī by the Scrampore missionaries. The New Testament and the Pentateuch were published in 1807, the prophetic books in 1821. A Kōnkanī translation of the Bible appeared at Scrampore in 1819.

The list of authorities which follows does not include the works mentioned in the preceding pages. It should be compared with the shorter lists printed below under Konkan Standard and Könkanī. See pp 65 and 166.

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Marāthī is usually written in the so-called Bālbōdh or in the so-called Mōdī character.

Bālbōdh, lit. 'teachable to children' is identical with Dēvanāgarī, and has been described in Vol. v. Part 11, pp. 7 and ff.

It is used in almost all printed books, and also, to a great extent, in private transactions and letters. The Mödi character is almost totally confined to the latter kind of writing. An example of its use will be found on pp. 259 and ff. It consists of the following signs:—

Of its the in	1 50 1041	1		
		Vowers		
(3) "	₹7 ĕ	$f_{i,\bar{\imath},\bar{\imath}}$	T 11, ũ,	
ð ě		ન	fan B	an U:ah
T ha	รีบ ไม่จ	Consonants.	El gha	J. 11 a
3 cha	E chha	V ja	If jha	ञ ña
7 ta	J tha	3 da	To dia	OT na
T ta	tha	T da	U dha	7 na
\Box pa	N Pha	日 ba	M bha	II ma
II ya	J ra	B la	V ca	
ही ईव	T sha	rs O	T ha	
न la	& ksha	[daya		

The forms of the vowels given above are only used at the beginning of words or syllables. When the vowels follow a consonant they are expressed by means of secondary signs in the same way as in the Devanagari alphabet. For the sake of teaching these signs the alphabet is disposed in $Barakh^adis$, or series of twelve letters, each containing a consonant combined with all possible vocalic sounds. Such Barakhadis are —

A short note on the Mod. Character by B A Gup'e will be found in the Indian Aniquery, Vol xxxiv, 1905, pp 27 and ff.

In Könkani the Kanarese and also the Roman alphabet are often used for the printing and writing of the dialect—Compare below p. 167. The Kanarese letters have been described in Volume IV under Kanarese

Mr Beames has justly pointed out that Marāthī has 'a very decided individuality, a type quite its own, arising from its comparative isolation for so many centuries'. The vocabulary chiefly consists of Tadbhavas of different age. The loans from Persian are comparatively unimportant. On the other hand, old Tadbhavashave, since the revival of Marāthī literature, to some extent been replaced by Sauskrit loan-words. Thus, we now find prasād, favour, instead of the pasāy of Dnyānōbā's poetry: gambhār, deep, instead of his gahiru: nāth, a lord, instead of his nāh, and so on. The general character of Marāthī has been described by Mr. Beames as follows—'Marāthī is one of those languages which one may call playful—it delights in all sorts of jingling formations and has struck out a larger quantity of secondary and tertiary words, diminutives, and the like, than any of the other tongues.'

Pronunciation.—The short a is pronounced like the u in English 'but.' In Könkani, however, it assumes the open sound of o in 'hot,' as is also the case in Bengali. Thus, tote,', to go A short a is inherent in every consonant which is not combined with any other vowel. In poetry this short a is always pronounced. Thus, ghar, a house, is pronounced ghara. Such a word is, therefore, said to be disyllable. In the same way gharas, to a house, is said to have three syllables, and so on. On the other hand, in every-day speech the final short a of a polysyllable word is not pronounced. Thus, ghar, a house; bahin, a sister.

In a word of three syllables, which ends in a vowel other than a, a short a in the penultimate is slurred; thus, $\underline{tsal}^a n\bar{\imath}$, a sieve—In words of four syllables a short a in the antepenultimate is silent, thus, kar^avat , a saw. In a word of five syllables a short a in the second syllable, and, if the word does not end in a silent a, in the penultimate is silent. Thus, $s\bar{a}r^akhavat$, resemblance; $var^atav^al\bar{a}$, an extra payment. The short a in compound words is dropped in the same cases as in the uncompounded word. Thus, $vi\text{-}sar^al\bar{a}$, he forgot; $kal^akal^an\tilde{e}$, to be agitated.

These rules are observed in the Konkan, in the northern part of the Dekhan, Berar, and the Central Provinces. In the Dekhan south of Poona every short a is fully sounded, though the educated classes try to conform their speech to the Poona standard, thus, $visaral\bar{a}$, he forget. A final a is, however, in most cases silent. This tendency to pronounce the short a is probably due to the influence of the neighbouring Kanarese. It is most strongly developed in Kolhapur where even the short final a is often fully sounded, thus, $d\bar{v}na$, two. Similar is the case in the dialect of the Saraswat Brahmans of Karwar. See below, pp. 188 and fi.

Short and long a are often interchangeable with \tilde{e} , more especially in the termination \tilde{e} of neuter bases, of the instrumental and of verbal forms, and in the termination $\tilde{e}n$ of the future. Thus, $ghar\tilde{e}$, $ghar\tilde{e}$, and $ghar\tilde{e}$, houses; $b\tilde{a}p\tilde{a}-n\tilde{e}$ and $b\tilde{a}p\tilde{a}-n\tilde{e}$, by the father, $s\tilde{a}ngit^*l\tilde{e}$ and $s\tilde{a}ngit^*l\tilde{e}$ or $s\tilde{a}ngit^*l\tilde{e}$, it was said; $mhan\tilde{e}n$, $mhan\tilde{e}n$, or mhanan, I shall say. The a-forms are not admitted into literature or into the language of the educated classes in the Dekhan, but are quite common in the Konkan, Berar and the Central Provinces.

Short i and u as final vowels only occur in loan-words such as mati, infelligence; $bh\bar{a}nu$, sun—In the dialect of the Saraswat Brahmans of Karwar, however, final i and u are quite common.

I and u are always long in the penultimate of words ending in a silent a; thus $m\bar{a}r\bar{u}t$, striking; $l\bar{a}k\bar{u}l$, wood; $\tilde{u}s$, a sugarcane. They are short when they are followed by a full nasal sound; thus, unt, camel. These rules, however, only apply to the language of the educated classes.

When a word is inflected or ends in a long vowel the long $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} of the penultimate are shortened or changed to ${}^{\circ}$; thus, $m\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}t$, striking, $m\bar{u}rit\bar{u}$ or $m\bar{u}r^{\ast}t\bar{u}$, while striking.

A long \bar{a} is apparently also shortened under the same conditions, though it is written as long, thus, hatās, written hātās, to the hand; kanās, written hātās, to the car. F In such cases a has the sound of a in Italian ballo.

E is commonly pronounced as $y\bar{e}$; thus, $y\bar{e}k$ and $\bar{e}k$, one. This form is common everywhere with the exception of Poona and the neighbourhood. Interary forms such as $y\bar{e}n\tilde{e}$, to come; $y\bar{e}th\tilde{e}$; and $\bar{e}th\tilde{e}$, here, etc., show that the pronunciation of \bar{e} as $y\bar{e}$ has been common all over the Marāthī country. E is commonly interchangeable with $y\bar{a}$; thus, $t\bar{e}$, or $ty\bar{a}$, $v\bar{e}l\bar{e}s$, at that time. Compare ϵam -bhar, for ϵyam -bhar, and ϵam -bhar, hundred

-The Anunasika is often dropped, or, when it is considered necessary to pronounce it distinctly, in order to distinguish between forms which would otherwise be confounded, replaced by n. The latter pronunciation is especially used in honorific words such as $ty\bar{a}nl\bar{a}$, to him (honorific plural). Thus, $ghar\bar{a}t$, in the house; $ty\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, by him. In the Southern Konkan, however, the nasal pronunciation is very marked.

The gutturals, dentals, and labials are pronounced as in Sanskrit.

The palatuls are pronounced as in Sanskrit in words borrowed from that language and from Hindöstäni, and in Marāthi words before i, \bar{i} , \bar{e} , and g; thus, chand, fierce; $gam\bar{a}$, collected; chilhal, mud; $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ -ch \bar{e} ghar, the father's house; $m\bar{a}ghy\bar{a}$ ghar $\bar{a}t$, in my house Ch is also pronounced in the same way in ch $\bar{a}r$, four. This form is derived from Prākrit chattāri and chaurō probably through the steps chaāri, chyār; compare ghōdyās from ghōdaassa, ghōdaās, to a horse. The numeral 'forty' is usually pronounced $\underline{t}g\bar{a}l\bar{s}s$. In other cases the palatals are pronounced as $\underline{t}g$, $\underline{t}gh$, $\underline{d}g$, $\underline{d}gh$, respectively. In the Koukan this pronunciation is also common before \bar{e} . Thus, $\underline{t}g\bar{a}har$, a servant; $\underline{d}g\bar{a}n\bar{e}$, to go; $\underline{d}g\bar{e}$ (Konkan), which

 $J\tilde{n}$ is pronounced as dny, or, in the Konkan, as gy; thus, $dny\bar{a}n$ or $gy\bar{a}n$, knowledge. The sound only occurs in borrowed words

The cerebrals are usually pronounced as in Sanskrit. The cerebral d after vowels is, however, pronounced as an r in the Central and Northern Konkan, and as an r in some dialects in Berar and the Central Provinces, and probably also elsewhere. Thus, $gh\bar{o}d\bar{a}$, $gh\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ and $gh\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, a horse We may compare the change of d to l between vowels in Māhārāshtrī-Prākrit; thus, Sanskrit $tad\bar{a}ga$, Māhārāshtrī $tal\bar{a}a$, Marāthī $tal\bar{e}a$, a tank. In some rustic dialects in Berar d is, in a similar way, often confounded with l; thus, $gh\bar{o}l\bar{a}a$, a horse, dzavad, near. The cerebral u is often confounded with the dental u, though both

have a different origin, thus, $p\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ instead of $p\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, water. It has often been stated that the cerebral n is more common in the Konkan. This statement, however, only applies to the Könkani dialect, where the two sounds seem to be correctly distinguished. In Nagpur every dental n is said to become cerebral. All the specimens forwarded for the use of this Survey, however, give a dental n in all places.

Marāthī possesses a cerebral (ϖ) as well as a dental (ϖ) l-sound. The former is derived from a single l between vowels in-Prākrit, the latter from a double ll; thus, $k\bar{a}l$, Māhārāshtrī phullam, flower. The cerebral l is pronounced by putting the tip of the tongue against the palate and allowing the air to pass on both sides. On the coast, from Thana to Rajapur, the cerebral l has become dental, and in Berar and the Central Provinces it is often pronounced as an r or as a g. Thus, $m\bar{a}l\bar{i}$, $m\bar{a}l\bar{i}$, $m\bar{a}r\bar{i}$, and $m\bar{a}g\bar{i}$, a gardener.

The consonant v has a sound between v and w. It is produced by bringing both the lips (not only the lower one as in English) in contact with the upper teeth, the rounding of the lips being less than in pronouncing a w. Before i, \bar{i} , \bar{e} , y, and h it sounds almost like a v, while in other positions it approaches the sound of w. A final v coalesces with a preceding vowel to a kind of diphthong: thus, $g\bar{a}v$, a village, pronounced almost as $g\bar{a}\bar{o}v$ or $g\bar{a}v$. Before i, \bar{i} , and \bar{e} , a v has a tendency to be dropped. Thus, we find $ist\bar{o}$ and vistav, fire; $\bar{i}s$ and $v\bar{i}s$, twenty, $y\bar{e}l$ and $v\bar{e}l$, time. Such forms occur all over the Marāthī country, especially in rustic dialects.

Marāthī has two s-sounds, a dental s and a palatal δ . The latter is used before ϵ , $\bar{\epsilon}$, and $\bar{\epsilon}$, and y, and in loan-words from Sanskrit and Persian. Thus, $\delta imph\bar{\epsilon}$, a caste name; $\delta \bar{\epsilon} l$, a stone; $\delta \bar{\epsilon} t$, field; $\delta y\bar{a}m$, blue. Similarly δam -bhar, instead of δyam -bhar or $\delta \bar{\epsilon} m$ -bhar, hundred. Dialectically every δ is changed to s. A cerebral sh only occurs in borrowed words such as $\delta \bar{\epsilon} sh$, rest; $\delta \bar{\epsilon} sh^a n\bar{\epsilon}$, to dry up. It is pronounced as an δ .

Aspirated letters have often lost their aspiration, thus, $h\bar{a}t$, Prākrit hattha, hand; $m\bar{a}dz$. Prākrit majjha, waist; $s\bar{a}ng^{a}n\bar{e}$, Prākrit samghai, to say. In the Southern Konkan and Dekhan, where Marāthī borders on Kanarese, disaspiration is almost the rule.

Nouns.—Nouns may end in a short silent a, or in a long vowel, including \bar{e} , with or without nasalisation. A few nouns end in ai, \bar{o} , and au. Final i and u only occur in borrowed words such as kavi, a poet; mati, intelligence; $dh\bar{e}nu$, a cow.

The bases of nouns are weak, when they end in a short inherent a, or strong, when they end in a long vowel or a diphthong. Thus, weak, ghar, house; bhint, wall: strong, $gh\bar{o}d\bar{a}$, horse; $m\bar{o}t\tilde{i}$, pearl. The long final of strong bases is derived from contraction. Thus, $gh\bar{o}d\bar{a}$ goes back to a Piākrit $gh\bar{o}dau$; $m\bar{o}t\hat{i}$ to a Prākrit mottiam.

Gender.—There are three genders, masculine, feminine, and neuter. The neuter is used to denote inanimate beings, and also animate beings in the plural where both the natural genders are included, or the gender is left undecided; thus, $m\bar{a}n^as\tilde{e}$, people. In the Konkan the neuter singular is commonly used to denote females before the age of puberty; thus, $ch\bar{c}d\tilde{u}$, a girl. In the plural the neuter is often used as a honorific feminine; thus, $b\bar{a}\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{a}h\bar{c}b$ $\bar{a}l\tilde{i}$, the lady came.

Strong bases ending in \tilde{a} are, if they are not borrowed words, masculine. The corresponding feminine and neuter terminations are \tilde{i} and \tilde{e} , respectively; thus, $mul^ng\tilde{a}$, a boy; $mul^ng\tilde{i}$, a.girl; $mul^ng\tilde{a}$, a child.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. Of masculine nouns only those ending in \tilde{a} , which take \tilde{e} instead of \tilde{a} , change for the plural. Thus, $b\tilde{a}p$, father, fathers; but $gh\tilde{o}d\tilde{a}$, a horse; $gh\tilde{o}d\tilde{e}$, horses.

Most feminine nouns add \tilde{a} , in the plural; thus, jibh, a tongue, plural $jibh\tilde{a}$; $gh\tilde{o}d\tilde{i}$, a maie, plural $gh\tilde{o}dy\tilde{o}$, $b\tilde{a}y^{a}h\tilde{o}$, a woman, plural $b\tilde{a}y^{a}h\tilde{a}$. Compare borrowed words such as $hath\tilde{a}$, a tale, plural $hath\tilde{a}$.

Most feminine nouns ending in a short silent a, form their plural in this way. They are derived from Prākiit bases ending in \tilde{a} ; thus, $j\tilde{\imath}bh$, a tongue, goes back to a Prākiit $j\tilde{\imath}bbh\tilde{a}$. In Prākiit there was also a large class of feminine nouns ending in $\tilde{\imath}$. This final $\tilde{\imath}$ must be dropped in Marāthī, and these old $\tilde{\imath}$ -bases, therefore, look exactly like old \tilde{a} -bases. Thus, $j\tilde{\imath}bh$, a tongue, Prākiit $jibbh\tilde{a}$; $m\tilde{u}th$, a fist, Prākiit $mvtth\tilde{\imath}$. These two classes are, however, distinguished in declension, and the old $\tilde{\imath}$ -bases form their plural, not in \tilde{a} , but in $\tilde{\imath}$, thus, $bhint\tilde{\imath}$, walls, $i\tilde{\imath}$ - $i\tilde{\imath}$ -, erepers, etc. To this class belong many verbal nouns which in the nominative are identical with the verbal base. Thus, $bh\tilde{\imath}$, a meeting, from $bh\tilde{\imath}$ - $i\tilde{\imath}$, to meet, $th\tilde{\imath}$, a deposit from $th\tilde{\imath}$ - $i\tilde{\imath}$, to deposit, and so forth.

Some feminine nouns ending in \tilde{v} do not change in the plural; thus, $d\tilde{a}r\tilde{u}$, liquor

and liquors

Neuter nouns ending in \tilde{e} form their plural in \tilde{i} , all other neuter nouns add \tilde{e} ; thus, $tal\tilde{e}$, a tank, plural $tal\tilde{i}$; ghar, a house, plural $ghar\tilde{e}$; $m\tilde{o}t\tilde{i}$, a pearl, plural $m\tilde{o}ty\tilde{e}$, and so forth

Words ending in i and ν do not change in the phual; thus, kaii, a poet, poets; $dh\bar{\epsilon}nu$, a cow, cows

Gase.—Cases are formed by adding postpositions, not, however, to the base, but to a modification of it called the oblique form. There are, besides, some remains of the old synthetic cases of the Prākrits—The most common of those old forms is a dative ending in s, thus, $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}s$, to a father. $B\bar{a}p\bar{a}s$ is derived from Prākrit bappassa, the genitive of $bapp\bar{o}$, a father, the genitive having replaced the dative in all Prākrits. The origin of the form has, however, been forgotten, and s is now used exactly like other dative suffixes and is added to the oblique base of all nouns; thus, $mul^*qy\bar{a}s$, to daughters. The original force of a genitive can still be seen in the Konkan where this form in s is often used as an oblique base. See p. 66 below.

An old locative occurs in forms such as $ghar\tilde{\imath}$, in the house; $p\tilde{a}y\tilde{a}$, at the feet. It is very common in poetry. In the Konkan we find another old locative in the word $g\tilde{e}r$, in the house

An old instrumental ends in \tilde{e} , plural \tilde{i} and $h\tilde{i}$; thus, $kumar\tilde{e}$, by the boy; $k\tilde{a}ul\tilde{i}$, by the crows; $ikur\tilde{e}h\tilde{i}$, by the lord (honorific plural). Such forms are mostly confined to poetry.

The oblique form of borrowed words ending in i and u ends in \overline{i} , plural \widetilde{i} , respectively. Thus, kaii, a poet, obl. sing. $kav\overline{i}$; $dh\bar{e}nu$, a cow, obl. plural $dh\bar{e}n\widetilde{u}$.

Masculine bases ending in \tilde{a} and neuter bases ending in \tilde{v} change \tilde{a} and \tilde{v} to $y\tilde{a}$, plural $y\tilde{a}$ in the oblique form. Thus, $gh\tilde{o}d\tilde{a}$, a horse, obl. sing. $gh\tilde{o}dy\tilde{a}$, obl. plur. $gh\tilde{o}dy\tilde{a}$; $tal\tilde{e}$, a tank, obl. sing. $taly\tilde{a}$, obl. plur. $taly\tilde{a}$. E is often substituted for $y\tilde{a}$, thus $gh\tilde{o}d\tilde{e}$ - $l\tilde{a}$, to the horse. $R\tilde{a}dz\tilde{a}$, a king, often rejects the y of the oblique form in writing; thus, $r\tilde{a}j\tilde{a}$ - $had\tilde{e}$, to the king. The same is also the case in other words after palatals, the y being only seen in the palatal pronunciation of the preceding consonant

All other masculine and neuter bases add \bar{a} , plural \hat{a} in the oblique form. Thus,

 $b\bar{a}p,$ a father, ohl. $b\bar{a}p\bar{a},$ plur. $b\bar{a}p\tilde{a}$; $m\bar{o}t\tilde{\imath}$, a pearl, obl. plur. $m\bar{o}ty\tilde{a}.$

Masculine bases ending in \tilde{u} , however, usually retain the \tilde{u} ; thus, $\underline{t} s \tilde{a} k \tilde{u}$, a pen-knife, obl plur. $\underline{t} s \tilde{a} k \tilde{u}$ In other bases ending in \tilde{u} the oblique form often also ends in \tilde{a} or $v \tilde{a}$;

thus, $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, a grandson, obl. $n\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, $n\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, and $n\bar{a}t^{\prime}v\bar{a}$. $Bh\bar{a}\bar{u}$, a brother, usually forms $bh\bar{a}v\bar{a}$. Many neuter bases in \tilde{u} , especially all diminutives, add \bar{u} , plur. $y\tilde{a}$; thus, $kar^{\prime\prime}d\tilde{u}$, a kid, obl. $kar^{\prime\prime}d\bar{u}$; plur. $kar^{\prime\prime}d\tilde{e}$, obl. $kar^{\prime\prime}dy\tilde{a}$. In the Konkan both masculine and neuter \bar{u} -bases often add $v\bar{a}$, plur $v\tilde{a}$; thus, $l\bar{a}d\bar{u}$, a cake, obl $l\bar{a}d^{\prime\prime}v\bar{a}$.

The oblique singular of feminine nouns ending in $\tilde{\tau}$, \tilde{u} , and $\tilde{\sigma}$ is like the base; thus, $g\tilde{a}d\tilde{\tau}$, a cart, obl. $g\tilde{a}d\tilde{\tau}$; $b\tilde{a}y^ak\tilde{\sigma}$, a wife, obl. $b\tilde{a}y^ak\tilde{\sigma}$. Old $\tilde{\tau}$ -stems ending in a silent a take $\tilde{\tau}$; thus, $\tilde{a}g$, fire; obl. $\tilde{a}g\tilde{\tau}$. Old \tilde{a} -stems ending in a silent a and borrowed words ending in \tilde{a} form the oblique base in \tilde{c} ; thus, $j\tilde{\iota}bh$, tongue, obl $jibh\tilde{e}:kath\tilde{a}$, a tale, obl. $kath\tilde{e}$. The same is often the case with feminine \tilde{u} -bases in the Konkan, and feminine $\tilde{\tau}$ -bases in Konkan. Thus, $dzal\tilde{u}$, a leech, obl. $dzal\tilde{u}$ and $dzal^av\tilde{e}$; $v\tilde{a}n\tilde{\tau}$, a queen, obl. $v\tilde{a}ny\tilde{e}$. In female names ending in \tilde{u} the polite oblique form ends in \tilde{a} ; thus, $Yamun\tilde{a}$ - $kad\tilde{e}$, to $Yamun\tilde{a}$. The oblique plural is the nasalised plural base; thus, $g\tilde{a}dy\tilde{a}$, carriages, obl. $g\tilde{a}dy\tilde{a}$.

In Berar and the Central Provinces the nasalisation of the oblique plural is often dropped and a $h\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$ or $h\bar{a}$ may be added. Thus, $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{\imath}$ - $had\bar{c}$, to the fathers.

An old oblique plural ending in n occurs in compounds such as $pais\bar{a}n$ -pais \bar{a} , every pice; gharan-ghar, every house

The usual postpositions will be found in the Skeleton Grammar. It should be noted that the dative is also used to denote the object of transitive verbs when it denotes a person, or, else, when it is emphasised, as is also the case in connected languages; thus, $ty\bar{a}-n\tilde{e}$ $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}k\bar{u}n$ $dil\tilde{e}$, he drove away Rama; $hy\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}s^ahy\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}mby\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}y$ $m\tilde{i}$ $kh\bar{a}\tilde{u}$, what, shall I eat this rotten mange?

Adjectives.—Adjectives are not inflected unless they end in \bar{a} , in which case they form their feminine in $\bar{\imath}$, and their neuter in \tilde{e} . The plural then ends in \bar{e} , fem. $y\bar{a}$, neut $\bar{\imath}$, and the oblique form in $y\bar{a}$ or \bar{e} ; thus $\underline{t}_{\bar{s}}\bar{a}ng^al\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}n\bar{s}$ s, a good man; $\underline{t}_{\bar{s}}\bar{a}ng^aly\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}y^ak\bar{a}$, good women; $\underline{t}_{\bar{s}}\bar{a}ng^al\bar{\imath}$ $mul\bar{e}$, good children. The oblique form is used before inflected nouns. The genitive in $\underline{t}_{\bar{s}}\bar{a}$ is such an adjective; thus, $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ -chy \bar{a} ghar $\bar{a}t$, in the father's house; $\underline{t}_{\bar{s}}\bar{a}ng^aly\bar{a}$ $mul^agy\bar{a}s$, to good girls. The suffix $\underline{t}_{\bar{s}}\bar{a}$ is also used to form ordinary adjectives from nouns; thus, $ghar^at\underline{s}\bar{a}$ belonging to the house

Verbs.—Verbs are quoted in the form of the verbal noun ending in $n\tilde{v}$; thus, $kar^nn\tilde{e}$, to do The old present tense, which is used in poetry to denote all times, has developed into a habitual past, thus $kar\tilde{i}$, I used to do In the negative it expresses unwillingness in the past, thus, $t\tilde{o}$ ghar $\tilde{a}t$ $dz\tilde{a}\tilde{i}$ - $n\tilde{a}$, he house-into would-not-go. The imperative and the future are likewise old forms; thus, $kar\tilde{i}n$, I shall do; kar, do All other tenses are formed from participles. The present participle is used in the formation of present tenses, the past participle passive forms the past tense, and a present conjunctive is formed from the future participle passive; thus, $m\tilde{i}$ $vth^at\tilde{o}$, I rise; $m\tilde{i}$ $vth^at\tilde{o}$, I rose; $m\tilde{i}$ $vthat\tilde{o}$ or $my\tilde{a}$ $vthat\tilde{o}$, I should, or may, rise

The tenses formed from the present participle are all active, and the subject of the sentence is also the subject of the verb and agrees with the latter in number, person, and gender; thus, $t\bar{v}$ kar $t\bar{v}$, he does; $t\bar{v}$ kar $t\bar{v}$, she does. This construction is called by Native grammarians the kartan prayoga, the Active construction.

The past participle has a different meaning in intransitive and in transitive verbs. In intransitive verbs its meaning is an active one. Thus, $g\bar{e}l\bar{a}$, Sauskrit gata, means 'gone,' 'having gone.' The past tense of intransitive verbs is accordingly used in the Active construction; thus, $m\bar{i}$ $u!h^al\bar{o}$, I rose.

The past participle of transitive verbs is passive. Thus, while $v\bar{a}chil$ means 'reading,' $v\bar{a}chil\bar{a}$ means 'having been read,' 'read.' 'The boy reads a book' is $mul^{a}g\bar{a}$ $p\bar{o}th\bar{a}$ $v\bar{a}chil\bar{a}$, but 'the boy read a book' must be expressed 'a book was read by the boy,' $mul^{a}gy\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$ $p\bar{o}th\bar{a}$ $v\bar{a}chil\bar{a}$. Here the verb agrees in number, person, and gender with the object. This construction is called the karmani $pray\bar{o}ga$, or Passive construction and is used in all cases where the object is uninflected.

In other cases the participle is put in the neuter gender, and the object of the verb is put in the dative—Instead of 'I killed him' we thus say 'a killing was done by me with reference to him,' myā tuā-lā mārītē. This is called the bhāvē prayōga, or Impersonal construction—It is used when the object is inflected, that is, in most cases where the object of a transitive verb is a person. In the Konkan, however, the passive construction is often also used in such cases.

The future participle passive or participle of necessity never has an active sense Thus, $\underline{t}_{\mathcal{R}}\tilde{a}l\bar{a}_{\mathcal{L}}\tilde{e}$ means 'to be gone,' eundum; and $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}v\tilde{e}$, which is to be killed, interficiendum. The tenses formed from this participle of intransitive verbs should accordingly be expected to be used in the impersonal construction; thus, $my\bar{a}$ $uth\bar{a}v\tilde{e}$, it is to be risen by me, I should rise. A tendency exists, however, to forget the passive force of the participle, and thus we often find the active construction, the participle agreeing in gender, number, and person with the subject. Thus, $t\bar{o}$ $uth\bar{a}v\bar{a}$, he may, or might, rise; $t\bar{i}$ $uth\bar{a}v\bar{i}$, she may rise, etc. In the case of transitive verbs either the passive or the impersonal construction is used. Thus, $ap^{a_1}\bar{a}dh$ na $kar\bar{a}v\bar{a}$, sin should not be committed; $my\bar{a}$ $v\bar{a}t\underline{s}\bar{a}v\bar{e}$, I should read

The preceding remarks will have shown that transitive and intransitive verbs differ in construction in the past tense and in the subjunctive. There are, however, some transitive verbs which take the active construction in their past tense. Such verbs are $tar^o n\tilde{e}$, to pass over, $padh^o n\tilde{e}$, to study; $p\tilde{a}v^o n\tilde{e}$, to obtain, $pin\tilde{e}$, to drink; $b\tilde{o}l^o n\tilde{e}$, to speak; $mhan^o n\tilde{e}$, to say, $l\tilde{e}n\tilde{e}$, to put on; $lsar^o n\tilde{e}$, to forget; $lsar^o n\tilde{e}$, to learn; $lsan ad\underline{e}^o n\tilde{e}$, to understand, $lsar^o n\tilde{e}$, to loose, etc. Thus, $l\tilde{o} l\tilde{o}l^o l^o l$, he said; $l\tilde{e} l\tilde{e} l$, she has learnt her lesson.

The Maratha verb is generally stated to have two conjugations. The first comprises intransitive verbs and such transitives as use the active construction, the second most transitives. Verbs ending in vowels and h form their present tense after the first conjugation. Verbs ending in h form their past tense after the second conjugation, while the past tense of vocalie roots is irregular.

Both conjugations agree in the formation of most tenses. They differ in the following particulars. In the present and past participles and in tenses formed from them an i is inserted between the base and the suffixes in the second conjugation, while verys following the first insert an a. Thus $m\bar{a}r\bar{i}t$, striking; uthat, arising; $m\bar{a}rut\bar{a}$, struck; uthat, arisen. Similarly the characteristic vowel of the habitual past and the future is \bar{i} in the second, and \bar{c} , or, dialectically, \bar{a} , in the first conjugation. Thus, $m\bar{i}$ har $\bar{i}n$, I shall do; $m\bar{i}$ $uth\bar{a}n$, or $uth\bar{a}n$, I shall arise.

The two conjugations are, however, continually confounded, not only in poetry, but also in the current speech of the people, especially in Berar, the Central Provinces and the Konkan.

The terminations of the various persons will be found in the Skeleton Grammar on pp 30 and f. It should, however, be noted that the difference between the second and third persons has a strong tendency to disappear. The details are as follows.

In the singular the second person usually takes the form of the third person in Berar and the Central Provinces. Thus, $tu\ \bar{a}h\bar{e}$, thou art; $tu\ g\bar{e}l\bar{a}$, thou wentest. In Könkanī the second person usually ends in y; thus, $t\bar{u}\ \bar{a}s\bar{a}y$, thou art.

In the plural the second person often has the same termination as the third in Dekhan and Könkanī; thus, $\tilde{a}h\tilde{a}t$, Könkanī $\tilde{a}s\tilde{a}t$, you are; in Sholapur even $\tilde{a}h\tilde{o}t$, we are. In Berar and the Central Provinces the second person plural of the past tense is usually like the third, and in Könkanī also the first person plural takes the same form. Thus, Berar $g\tilde{e}l\tilde{e}$, you went, they went; Könkanī gele, we went, you went, they went

A dialectical termination of the second person plural is v, which is found in a few cases in the Konkan, thus, $h\bar{a}v$ and $h\bar{a}$, you are; $m\bar{a}r^2\bar{\epsilon}v$, you shall strike.

The third person singular often ends in n in the Konkan, Berar, and the Central Provinces, regularly only in the past tense of transitive verbs. Thus, $ty\bar{a}$ -na $s\bar{a}ngit$ lan, he said.

The verb substantive has in the Konkan a form different from that used in other districts, \tilde{a} being substituted for \tilde{o} ; thus, $m\tilde{\imath}$ $h\tilde{a}y$ instead of $m\tilde{\imath}$ $h\tilde{o}y$, I am.

The present tense of finite verbs will be found in the Skeleton Grammar. Instead of the termination \tilde{e} of the first person singular neuter, however, we commonly find \tilde{v} in the Dekhan; thus, $m\tilde{\imath}$ $karit\tilde{v}$, I (neuter subject) do. The termination $t\tilde{e}$ used with a subject of the feminine gender is commonly replaced by $t\tilde{\imath}$ in the Dekhan and $ty\tilde{e}$ in the Konkan. Thus, $t\tilde{\imath}$ $karit\tilde{\imath}$, or $karity\tilde{e}$, she does.

In the Konkan, Berar, and the Central Provinces, the present tense is very commonly formed by adding the abbreviated verb substantive to the present participle without any change for gender. Thus, Konkan $m\bar{\imath}$ $s\bar{\imath}odit\bar{a}y$, that is $s\bar{\imath}odit\bar{\imath}h\bar{a}y$. I seek; Berar $t\bar{\imath}o$, $t\bar{\imath}e$, $y\bar{e}t\bar{\imath}e$, he, she, comes; Nagpur $t\bar{\imath}e$ $dz\bar{\imath}at\bar{\imath}e\bar{\imath}e$, they go.

The past and future participles passive are commonly used as verbal nouns. The past participle passive in such cases takes a subject in the nominative, in the same way as when it is used as a past tense. A postposition is afterwards added, the participle being inflected like an ordinary noun. Thus, tum- $ch\bar{\imath}$ $t\underline{s}\bar{a}k^{\bar{\imath}}r\bar{\imath}$ $s\bar{o}dily\bar{a}$ -var, your service left-on, on having left your service; $tujh\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ $v\bar{a}r^aly\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}s\bar{u}n$, thy mother dead-from, since your mother's death.

The future participle passive is used in the dative and genitive cases as an infinitive of purpose, a verbal noun, and a gerundive. Thus, bāg pāhovyās tsālā, go to see the garden; vātsāvoyā-chē pustak, a book to read; mī marāvoyā-tsā nāhī, I am not to die

The usual verbal nouns will be found in the Skeleton Grammar. Several other dialectical forms occur; thus, $\underline{ts\bar{a}r\bar{a}v\bar{a}\cdot l\bar{a}}$, in order to tend (Konkan, Berar, Central Provinces), formed from a base $\underline{ts\bar{a}r\bar{a}v}$; $\underline{kar\bar{a}\cdot l\bar{e}}$, in order to do; $\underline{ts\bar{a}r\bar{a}y\cdot l\bar{e}}$, in order to tend (Came localities), form a verbal noun $\underline{ts\bar{a}r}$; $\underline{ts\bar{a}r^ay\bar{a}\cdot l\bar{e}}$, in order to tend (Berar), from a verbal noun $\underline{ts\bar{a}r\bar{e}}$, and so on.

The conjunctive participle usually ends in $\tilde{u}n$; thus, $kar\tilde{u}n$, having done. Besides this there is a form ending in $\bar{o}n$, corresponding to poetical forms ending in $\bar{o}n$, $\bar{o}ni$, $\bar{o}ni$, $\bar{o}ni$, $\bar{o}ni$, $\bar{o}ni$, is occasionally met with all over the Marāthī country; thus, $nigh\bar{o}n$, having gone out.

Several forms of the transitive verb are, as has already been pointed out, in reality passive. There is, accordingly, no necessty for a separate passive voice. Marathi has further preserved many verbal doublets, the one being intransitive or an old passive, the other an active verb. Thus, $gal^an\tilde{e}$, to drop; $g\tilde{a}l^an\tilde{e}$, to strain: $\underline{tsar^an\tilde{e}}$, to graze; $\underline{ts\tilde{a}r^an\tilde{e}}$, to cause to graze, to feed: $pa\tilde{q}^an\tilde{e}$, to fall; $p\tilde{a}\tilde{q}^an\tilde{e}$, to fell: $tut^an\tilde{e}$, to be

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broken; $t\delta d^3 n\tilde{e}$, to break, etc. In other cases the passive is expressed in a periphrastic way; thus, $ty\bar{a}$ - $t\underline{k}\bar{a}$ $uddh\bar{a}r$ $h\bar{o}\bar{\imath}l$, he will be saved. The Hindi passive, formed by adding the verb 'to go' to the past participle passive, is used in business letters, and does not really belong to the language; thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{a}ril\bar{a}$ $dz\bar{a}\bar{\imath}n$, I shall be struck.

The potential verb is formed from the future participle passive and is always used in the passive or the impersonal construction. Thus, $ma-l\bar{a}$ uthav $^{a}t\tilde{e}$, for-me arising can

be done, I can rise.

Old passive forms are $p\bar{a}hij\bar{e}$, it is wanted; $mhan^{\circ}j\bar{e}$, namely, lit. it is said. Other old passives only occur in poetry.

When the preceding remarks are borne in mind it is hoped that the principal features of the language will be easily understood from the short grammatical sketch which follows.



B .- Finito Vorb.

FIRST CONJUGATION - Ulh'ne, to rive

Infinitive, utha.

Verbal Nouns —(1) uță në; (2) uțhăyās, -yā-lā, -yā-chē; (3) uțhāv yās, -yā-lā, -yā-chē; (4) uth lē.

Participle, Pres , uthat , Part, uthela, uthelila , Future, uthenar , Noun of Agency, uthenara.

Conjunctive Participle, uthun, having risen

Adverbial Participle, uth'ta, uth'ta.na, while rising.

		Present, I rise, otc	Past, I rose, etc	Past habi-	Future, I	Subjunctive, I :	nay rise, cic.	Imperative,
				to riso, etc	etc.	Active construction.	Impersonal con-	
Eng	1	uthato, fto, n -to	uth-18, f -18, n -18	แปล้	uthën.	uthāvā, f -vī, n -vē	myā)	
	2	uth"tos, ftes, n -te-	uthelās, f -līs, nlis	ethē •	uļh*577.	uthīvās, f -rīs, n	tıā	vitt.
	3	utheto, f -tē, n -te	uth la, f -li, nli	uthē.	uthēl.	uthāvā, f -vī, n -vē.	tya-ne uthave	uthō
Plur	1	ณth⁴t ซึ่	นเราชอ.	uthu.	uthนี้	uthātē, f -ryā, n -tī	āmhī urnatt	uthū
	2	uth¶tā	าปล้ำไล้.	at hã.	uthāl.	uthāvēt, f -vyīt, n	tumhi	uthā
	3	uth*lat	uth*lē, f -lyā, n -lī	uthat	uthetil.	uthāvē, f -vyā, n -vī	tya-ni)	uthit

Present Definite, I am rising, etc , mi uthat ahe, etc.

Imperfect, I was rising, etc., mi uthat hoto, f. hote, u hote, etc.

Present habitual, I usually rise, etc., mi uthat as to, f -te, n. -te.

Perfect and Pluperfect, formed by adding, respectively, ahs and hoto to the Past tense, thus, the uth-la ahss. thou hast risen, etc

Past Conditional, had I risen, etc., mi uth'to, etc., inflected like the Past tense.

SECOND CONJUGATION .- marine, to strike

Participles, Present, marit, Past, marla, Future, marinar.

			Past, I atı	uck, etc		Past habi-	Future, I		Subjunctive, I sho	old strike	, etc.
		Passiv	e construction.	Inperson	al construction.	nsually struck, etc.	shall strike,	Passiv	e construction		ual construc- tion
Sing.	1	myā)	myā	}	พลิรโ	mārīn.	myā		myā)
	2	tvī	}	trā	ļ	māris	ทเลียเรีย	teŭ		trā	ł
	3	tzā-nö, etc	mīnilā, f -lī, n -lē, (plural, -lē, f	tyā-nö,) พระปรี.	mārī.	mārīl.	tya-në, etc	mārāvā, f ·vī, n ·vē /Plural, ·vē, f	tyā-nī,	mā, āve.
Plm	1	<i>लेm h</i> र्हे	lyā, n -li	ām!. Ē	1	ครริงนี้.	รทวีร นี้	ลังกลัง	rya; n -vi	āmhរី	1
	3	tumhī		tumhi		mār ā.	mārā!	tumAt		tumlit	<u> </u>
	3	tya-ns /		tya-กรี /	,	mīrīt	māritīl.	tyā•nī.	}	tya-ni)

S is often added in the second person singular of the Past tonse, thus, the jew newal Liles, then madest a feast.

Other forms agree with the first Conjugation Thus, mi marito, etc., I strike , mar, strike.

C.—Irregular Vorbs.—Verbs ending in vowels and in h form their present after the first and their future and habitual pist after the second conjugation. Thus, $d\bar{c}t\bar{n}$, I give, $y\bar{z}\bar{n}$, I shall come, $y\bar{z}\bar{i}$, be usually came. Thuse ending in h form their past in $il\bar{a}$, thus, $r\bar{a}hil\bar{a}$, be remained. In the verb $h\bar{o}n\bar{c}$, to become, $h\bar{o}$ is changed to vh before \bar{a} ; thus, $vh\bar{a}$, become ye

Same verbs form their Past in ālā, thus, viņlālā, he went ont; mhanālā, he said "T'is mserted before lā in ghēnē, to take, ghā!'nē, to put, dhunē, to wash, bagh'nē, to see, māg'nē, to ask, săng'nē, to tell, thus, ghā!'lē, ghāt'lē, dhut'lē, baghi!'lē, māgit'lē, sāngit'lē. Tis inserted in khan'nē, to sang han'nē, to sang the sang khan'lē in mat'lā and mhanālē, hāt'lē. Roots ending in ā add ālē, thus, pyālē, drang (root pī), bhyālē, leared (root bhī) So also lēnē, to weir, Past lyālē. Kar'nē, to do, forms lētē; mar'nē, to die, mēlē, dēnē, to give, dilē Irregula ato hūnē, to become, Past, āhālā, and ārāh'lā, gēnē, to come, Past, ālā; drānē, to go, Past gēlā.

D.—Causal Vorbs.—Causatives are formed by adding an, av, or, in roots ending in long vowels and h, two and arav respectively. Thue, bas in in, to cause to sit; deo vine, to cause to give In the Pekhan iv is substituted for av, and this is now generally adopted in the Imperative, thus Larie, let him do. Causatives follow the second conjugation.

E .-Potential Vorbs. -Formed as causal verbs, but follow the first conjugation. They always use the passive or the impersonal construction, the subject being put in the Dative or in the Instrumental formed from the Genitive Thus, Rāmā·lā, or Rāmā·chyā·nā bhālar khān'rgtē, Rāma can cat bread; ma-lā trālav'lē, I could go

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MARĀTHĪ IN THE DEKHAN.

The form of Marāthī spoken in the Dekhan very closely agrees with the preceding grammatical sketch. It is usually called Dēśi, that is the language of the $D\bar{e}\hat{s}$, the country par excellence.

The frontiers within which this form of Marāthī is spoken coincide with those given for the whole language towards the north. Towards the west it gradually merges into the Konkan form of the language in the hilly country which separates the Konkan from the Dekhan. It will be shown below that this latter form is largely influenced by Dēsī along the whole frontier line. On the other hand, similar dialects are also spoken in the Dekhan, thus, for instance, by the Kun²bīs of Poona These mixed forms of speech will be dealt with in connection with the Marāthī of the Konkan.

Towards the east, Dēśi merges into Varhādī in Buldana, where it occupies the western part of the district — Farther to the south—the frontier line coincides with that given above for Marāthī. It is not, however, possible to state how many speakers in Hyderabad should be assigned to Dēśī and how many to Varhādī.

The Dekhan form of the language is also spoken in the towns of Bijapur, the chief language of which district is Kanarese, and, to some extent, in Dharwar. In Baroda it is the language of the court, and is spoken by the following numbers in the different districts.—

Baroda				•						35,678
Navsari										10,671
Kadi						,				3,138
Amrelı		•	•		•					2,338
								To	TAL	51,828

The revised figures for the districts where it is spoken as a vernacular were reported Number of speakers for this Survey as follows —

Bombay Town	and I	sland	ι,	,		٠							80,000
Thana .								_					32,000
Nasile .								-					520,000
Ahmadnagar													804 000
Poona .							_		•				239,000
Bhoi State						•	•		•	•	•		153,000
Sholapui				•	·		•					•	586,000
Akalkot State			•		•	•			•	•	•	•	26,000
Satara .		-				•	•	•	•	•		•	
Satara Agency	(Stat	е Ап	ndbl	•		•				•	•		1.159,500
" "			nltan)	•			•	•	•	•	•		55,000
Belgaum	(15111		i titality	•	•			•				•	59,500 ر
Jat State	•	•		•	•			•		•			265,000
Kolhapur Stat		•		•		•		•	•	•	•	•	43,000
Dharwai	.0						•				•		710,000
Dharwai (Kul	•	. •		•		•	•	•	•	•		•	41,000
South w Man	iwadi,	· ,	•	•		•				•		•	3,000
Southern Mar	itilii J	agnn	з.	•			•						265,350
Bijapur .	•		•	•		•							27,680
Baroda .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•						51,828
Buldana .	•	•	•	•	•								270,000

TOTAL

6,093,858

It is probable that much of this total in reality refers to a form of speech similar to that current in the Konkan. We know this to be the case with the Kun[®]bis of Poona. The difference between the two dialects is not, however, so important that any serious disadvantage will arise from the whole total being put down as belonging to Dēśi.

The Dēśī form of the language is also to some extent spoken by the educated classes all over the Marāthī territory, and by settlers from the Dekhan throughout India. In most cases no detailed figures are available, and the estimates forwarded from Janjira, Kolaba, and Ratuagiri have therefore been put down as belonging to the Konkan form of Marāthī, though many of the educated classes speak pure Dēšī

The speakers of Marathi in those parts of India where it is not a vernacular have been returned as speaking Marathi, without mention of sub-dialect. The figures will be found in the general introduction to the group. See above p. 2.

Standard Marathi in the Dekhan form, has, however, been reported from soveral districts outside the territory where that dialect is spoken as a vernacular. The details, so far as they could be ascertained, are as follows.

In the Bombay Presidency Standard Marathi has been returned from Kanara and Savanur. The ensuing estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded by the local authorities.—

Kanara													
Savanai	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	500
										\mathbf{T}_0	TIL	•	2,800

In Berar, where a slightly different dialect is current in most districts, settlers from the Dekhan have brought the Standard form of the language with them. It has only been returned from Akola and Ellichpur, and the numbers of speakers have been estimated as follows:—

Δ kola			•	•			•	5,000
Ellichpur								250
=								
						To	JAI	5,250

One thousand of the speakers in Akola and all in Ellichpur have been returned as speaking 'Dakhiṇi Marāthi.' They are stated to be immigrants from the south. The western part of Buldana belongs linguistically to the Dekhan, and the speakers of Marāthi in that district have been included in the total given above on p. 32.

In Central India Marāthī, in the form which this language assumes in the Dokhan, is the court language in the Indore State, and it is also spoken by Dakhinī Brāhmans and Marāthās in the Sajapur district of Gwalior and in Bhopal. The revised figures are as follows.—

Indoro					•				•	77,000
Gwalior										1,000
Bhopal	•								•	3,300
							T_0	TAL		\$1,300

In the Central Provinces the language of Poona and surrounding districts is sometimes called Punčkarī. Almost all the speakers are found to the north of the Satpura plateau, in the Saugor and Narbada territories. These districts once belonged to the Garha-Mandla dynasty of Gönds, but were finally handed over to the Peshwa in 1781 - 34 MARATHI.

and thence for some time formed part of the Maratha principality of Saugor. Though the Bhonslas of Nagpur afterwards held sway over the country from 1791 till it was annexed by the British in 1818, the Maratha of those districts is still the Dekhan form of the language. The number of speakers has been returned for the use of this survey as follows:—

Hoshangal	nd ar	ad Ma	kiai	•					•		•	5,500
Narsinghp					•	٠	•					600
Jubbulpor	e			•				•				2,250
Damoh				•				•			•	1,500
Chanda					•	•	•	•		•	•	25
									T_0	TAL		9,875

By summing up the figures given in the preceding pages we arrive at the following total for the Dekhan form of Marātbī.

A	Spoken as a vernacular Spoken abroad—	•		•		•	•		•	6,093,858
В	D 1 D 1	•	:	:	•			•	2,800 5,250 81,300 9,875	
	Contrar 110vince		•	·		•		•	99,225	99,225
						Тот	ΑĽ			6,193,083

POONA.

The specimens received from Poona very closely agree with the grammatical sketch on pp. 30 and 31. Marāthi is spoken all over the district, without great dialectical differences, by the bulk of the population. The two specimens which follow have very few peculiarities. The form $m\tilde{\iota}$ is used in addition to $my\tilde{a}$ as the case of the agent of the personal pronoun of the first person; thus, $m\tilde{\iota}$ $p\tilde{a}p$ $k\tilde{e}l\tilde{e}$ $\tilde{a}h\tilde{e}$, by-me sin done is. Transitive verbs add s in the second person singular of the past tense; thus, $tv\tilde{a}$, or $t\tilde{a}$, $kav^ad\tilde{a}$ $l\tilde{e}$ $l\tilde{e}$

There are no instances of the use of the first person neuter and the third person feminine singular of the present tense. These forms end in $t\tilde{e}$, $t\tilde{e}$ respectively, in Standard Marāthī. Thus, $y\tilde{e}t\tilde{e}$, I (neuter) come; $y\tilde{e}t\tilde{e}$, she comes. The usual forms in the Dekhan are $y\tilde{e}t\tilde{o}$, I (neuter) come; $y\tilde{e}t\tilde{e}$, she comes.

In all other respects the specimens well represent the language of Marathi literature. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found below on pp 395 and ff.

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARATHI.

(DISTRICT POONA.)

SPECIMEN 1.

कोणे एका मन्प्यास दोन पुत्र होते। त्याँतील धाकठा वापाला म्हणाला, वावा, जो मालमत्तेचा वाँटा मला यावयाचा तो दे। मग लाने लाँस संपत्ति वॉटून दिली। सग घोडक्या दिवसॉनी धाकटा पुत्र सर्व जमा करून टूर देशॉत गेला। आणि तेथे उधकेपणाने वाग्न आपली संपत्ति उडविली। सग लाने सर्व खिचित्या-वर ला देगाँत मोठा दुष्वाक पडला। ला-मुकेलाला अडचण पडूँ लाग-ली। तेव्हाँ ती त्या देशाँतील एका गृहस्था-जवक्र जाकन राहिला। त्यांने तर त्याला डुकरेँ चारावयास आपल्या भेतॉत पाठिवलेँ। तैल्हाँ डुकरेँ जी टरफलेँ खात असत लॉ-बर आपलेँ पोट भरावेँ अमेँ लाला वाटलेँ। आणि कोणी लाला कॉर्ही दिलें नाहीं। नंतर तो शुबी-वर येजन म्हणाला, माभ्या वापाच्या किती चाकराँस भरपुर भाखर आहे। आणि मी भुवीन मरतों। मी उठून आपल्या वापा-अंडे जाईन व त्याला म्हणेन, वावा, मी आकाशाच्या-विमद व तुभ्या-समीर पाप क्लें आहे आणि आताँ पुढें तुसा युच ऋणावयास मी योग्य नाहीं। आपल्या एका चाकरा-प्रमाणेँ मला ठेव। नंतर तो उठून आपन्या वापा-कडे गेला। तैन्हाँ तो दूर आहे दतन्याँत लाचा बाप लाला पाँहन कळवळला, आणि लानेँ धाजन लाच्या गळ्यास मिठी मारली, व लाचे चुंवन घेतले । मग पुत्र लाला म्हणाला, वावा आकाणाच्या-विकड व तुभ्छा-समीर मी पाप क्लेलें आहें। आणि आताँ पुढेँ तुभा पुत्र म्हणावयाम भी योग्य नाहीं। परंतु वापानैँ आपख्या लाकरॉस सांगितलें, उत्तम भगा आण्न लाचे आंगा व्र घाला। आणि लाच्या हातांत अंगठी व पायांत जोडा घाला। मग आपण र्जर्ज आणि आनंद कर्ष । कॉ कीं हा माभा पुत्र मेला होता, तो फिरुन जिवंत भाला; व हारवला होता, ती सॉपडला आहे। तेन्हाँ ते आनंद कहूँ लागले।

त्या-वेकेस त्याचा वडील पुच भ्रेतॉत हीता। सग ती घरा-जवक येकन पोहोंचल्या-वर त्याने वादा व नाच ऐक्तिलें। तेव्हां चाकरातील एकास वोलावून त्यानं विचारिलें, हें काय आहे। त्यानें त्याला सांगितलें कीं, तुमा भाज आला आहे; आणि तो तुम्या वापाला मुखकूप मिळाला म्लणून त्यानें मोठी जीवणावळ केली आहे। तेलां तो रागावला आणि आँत जाई-ना। म्हणून त्याचा वाप वाहेर येजन त्यास समभावूं लागला। परंतु त्यानें वापाला उत्तर दिलें कीं, पहा, भी इतकीं वर्षें तुभी चाकरी करतीं आणि तुभी आज्ञा भी कधीं-ही मोडली नाहीं। तरी भ्यां आपल्या मिचा-वरोवर चैन कराधी म्हणून त्वां मला वधीं करडूं हि दिलें नाहींस। आणि ज्यानें तुभी संपत्ती कजविणी-वरोवर उध्वस्य केली तो तुभा पुच जेलां आला तेलां त्यासाठीं मोठी जीवणावळ केलीस। तेलां तो त्यास म्हणाला, मुला, तूं नेहसी माभ्या-वरोवर आहेस आणि माभी सर्व मालमत्ता तुभीच आहे। परंतु हर्ष व आनंद होणें योग्य आहे, कारण कीं तुभा भाज मेला होता तो फिक्न जिवत भाला, व हरवला होता तो सॉपडला॥

[No. I.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀTHĪ.

(DISTRICT POONA.)

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Tyãtil Könē manushyās dôn putra hōtē. dhāk tā. ēkā Certain one to-man were. Them-in-from the-younger 1100 80118 vãtā māl*mattē-tsā ma-lã yāvayā-tsā bāpā-lā mhanālā, ' bābā. $dz\bar{o}$ what the-property-of is-to-come the-father-to said, father, share me-to tyãs vätun dilī. tō de. Mag tvā-në sampatti wealthhaving-divided was-given. that give. Then him-bu to-them div³รถึ-ทา๊ sarv karūn thôd kvā dhāk¹tā putra dzamā Maghaving-made days-after the-younger the-whole together Then a-few 8011 tëthë udhile-panā-në dùr dēsãt. ,gēlā, āni vägün āplī there spendthriftness-with having-behaved his-own far into-country went, and tyā-në kharchilyā-yar sampatti udavilī. Mag sarv tyã Thenhim-by allbeing-spent-after that wealthwas-squandered. ∂ē<ãt. möthä dushkāl padalā. Tvā-mule tvā-lā ad*tsan fell. great That-on-account-of in-country famine him-to difficulty dē⟨ãtĭl padũ lāg'li; tëvhã tō tyā ēkā grihasthā-dzaval to-fall began; then he that country-in-from one householder-near duk^arē <u>ts</u>ārāvayās rāhilā. Tvā-në tvā-lā far dzāūn āp'lyā Sētāt. lived. Him-by then him swine to-feed his-own into-field having-gone Tëvhã duk'rë jĩ pāthavilē. tarphale khāt-asat tvã-var āplē it-was-sent. Thenswine which hushs used-to-eat that-upon his-own bharāve กรซี vāt°lë: tvā-lā āni könī pūt tvă-lâ should-be-filled him-to it-appeared; and 80 belly anyone-(by) him-to તોદાંહ nāhĩ. kãhĩ Nantar łō Suddhī-var yĕũn mhanālā. not. Thenhescnses-to anuthing was-given having-come said. bāpā-chyā kitī tsāk*rãs bhar-pūr bhākar āhē. 'māihyā āni mī sufficientfather-of how-many to-servants bread1 2/27/ is, T and bhukë-në mar'tõ. Mi uthūn apalya bāpă-kadō dzāin T'A my-own father-to will-go \mathcal{I} die. having-arisen hunger-with and tvā-lā mhanèn. "bābā, mī ākāśā-chyā-viruddh va furhyā-samör pāp noill-say, " father. me-(by) heaven-of-against andof-thee-before him-to sin

mhanāv^ayās ātã-pudhễ tu<u>dz</u>hā putra āni āhē. kele to-cause-(myself-)to-be-called thyson henceforth anddone ma-lā thev.", Apilyā ēkā t<u>s</u>āk⁴rā-pramān€ Nantar nāhĩ. mî yōgya keen." Then Thy-own one servant-like 173C am-not I†it itakyat āp^alyā bāpā-kadē gēlā Tēvhर्दे tō dür āhē uthün tō he having-arisen his-own father-to went. he far just-then Then28 tyā-në āni dhāŭn kal*val*lā; pāhūn tvā-lā bāp tyā-<u>ts</u>ā him-by having-run and pitied; having-seen father Tum htstyā-chē chumban ghētlē. mār'lī, va mithī galyās tyā-chyā ou-the-neck embracing was-struck, and him-of λiss wus-tahen. tyā-lā mhanāla, 'bābā, ākāśā-chyā-viruddh va tujhyā-samör putia Mag father, heaven-of-against and of-thee-before Then the-son him-to said, ātā-pudhē tudzbá putra mhanāy'yās kēlễ āhē Ani pāp mī to-be-called henceforth thyson Anddone28 me-(by) sangit le. tsāk^rãs āp⁴lyā bānā-nễ mī yōgya nāhī.' Parantu the-father-by his-own to-servants it-was-told, Bvtam-not' $ar{\Lambda}$ nı tvá-chyá āngā-var ghālā. tyā-chē dzhagā ānūn 'uttam Δnd 1118 the-body-on put. having-brought his robe"the-hest Mag āpan า๋ย์นีdzödā ghālā pāvāt angathi va bātãt shall-eat on-the-hand a-ring and on-the-foot shoes yon-put. Thenvcputia mēlā hōtā. fō kã-kĩ. mādzhā kaıñ. hā āni dead teas. son this my and happiness shall-make. because, hāravelā hōtā, tō sāpadelā āhē' Techã tē nivant dzhālā. va was, he found 78. Thenthey lost altre became, and ayam ānand karữ làgªlê joy to-make began

Tyā-vēles tyā-tsā vadīl putra setāt lıötä Mag to ghara-dzaval Then he house-near in-field uns. elder 8072 At-that-time 7018 Tarlig ลเไม่ยี nāts pōhōtselvā-var tvā-nē vādv $T\Omega$ having-come arriving-after him-by music and dancing was-heard. Then ٠ bẽ kāv tyā-nễ vicharıle, tsāk*rātīl ēkās hölävün him-by it-was-asked. 'this what servants-in-from to-one having-called āni tō bhāū ālā ābē: kĩ, 'tudyhā sāngit¶ẽ tyá-lā 28; and the brother come Dim-by him-to it-was-said that, "thu tyā-ne mothi jév°nával kēlī sukharup milala mbanun tuthyā bānā-lā made ham-by great feastfather-to saferoas-got therefore tvā-tsā Têvhã tō St Mhanūn āhē? rägāvilā āni dzāī-nā. 7128 înside would-not-go. Therefore Thenhe got-angry andtyās sam^odzhāvū lāg^olā Parantu tyā-nē bāpā-lā bāhēr yèün ham-by fother-to Butfather out having-come him to-persuade began. dîlê kar tõ. uttar it°kĩ raishe tujhi tsākrī 'palia, mi am-doing, was-given that, 'see, I thy service 80-man# years

kadhī-hī mōd°lī nāhī. Tarī mya āpilyā āni tujhī ādnyā $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\tilde{i}}$ ever-even was-broken not. Yet by-me iny-own thy order (by)-me and ma-lā tvã mitrā-barōbar mlianūn kadhi chain karāvī by-thee me-to ever friends-with merriment should-be-made saying kardî dilë-nahis. jyā•nē̃ tujhī sampattī hī $ar{\mathbf{\Lambda}}$ ni thya-kideven given-was-not-by-thee. Andwhom-by property ievhã kadz^abinī-barōbar udhvasth tudzhā putra ālā kēlī tõ harlots-with squandered was-madethatthy son when cametēvhã tvāsāthĩ kēlis.' Tēvhã tō möthi jēv^anāval tvās Thenthen his-sake-for greatfeast was-made-by-thee. heto-him mhanālā, 'mulā, t.ĩĩ nēh°mī ° mājhyā-barōbar mājhī āhēs, āni sarv 'son, said, thou always me-with art. and my allmāl*mattā tujhi-<u>ts</u> āhē. Parantu harsh va ānand hōne yögya āhē. property thine-alone is. Butdelight and joy to-be proper i8. Kāran-kī, tudzhā bhāū phirán melā hōtā, tō jivant dzhālā: va Because. thybrotherdeadwas, he again alive became: and harav^alā hōtā, tō sãpadªlā.' lostwas, he was-found.

[No. 2.] INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARATHI.

(DISTRICT POONA.)

SPECIMEN II.

नारायण-रावांनीं आपल्या-कडून पुष्तक सांगृन पाहिलें। पण गोविंदाचें सन वकेना। त्याचें सनात डाक्तरीचा धंदा शिकावा असेंच भरलें होतें। आणि डाक्तरीचा धंदा शिकण्याचें त्या दिवसात तसें फारमें साधन नव्हतें। एकुलता एक सुलगा घोडेसें अधिक इंग्रजी शिक्न् तयार भाला म्हणजे कोठें-तरी चिकट्न द्यावा। नीकण्या त्या दिवसात सहज लागत आणि नीकरी लागली म्हणजे वढती ही लवकर होई। पण गोविंदाचा नाद एक, आतां अधिक इंग्रजी न शिकतां आपल्या शिजारींच असणाण्या डाक्तरा-जवळ राहन डाकरी धंदा शिक्न लवकर डाकरी कहें लागावें। नारायण-रावांनीं तसें-ही सांगितलें कीं, तू आणखी इंग्रजी शीक म्हणजे नवीन डघडलेल्या डाक्तरी-कालेजात तुला घालतों। पण नाहीं। शेवटी मुलाचा नाद पुरवावा असे मनात आणृन त्यांनीं डाकर दामोदर-रावांस आपल्या सुलाचा हेतु कळवून त्यार करतों, पण तयार भाल्या-नंतर त्यांनें या गावांत डाक्तरी-धंदा कहें नथे। अशा अटी-वर त्यार भाल्या-नंतर त्यांनें या गावांत डाक्तरी-धंदा कहें नथे। अशा अटी-वर त्यास आपल्या हाता-खार्ली विद्यार्थी म्हणून घेण्याचें कवूल कीलें॥

[No. 2.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀTILI,

(DISTRICT POONA.)

SPECIMEN II.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Nārāyan-rāvā-nĩ	āp°lyā-kadūn	pushkal si	ingūn pāl	nile. Pan
Narayan-Rao by	himself-by	much hav	uny-told it-was	8-seen. But
Govindā-che man	valē-nā.	Tyā-chễ ma:	nit däktri-	tsā-dhandā
Govind-of mind	would-not-move.	<i>His in-m</i>	ind the-medic	cal-profession
fıkāvā	asë- <u>ts</u> bhar1ë	liōte. Ār	ni dākt ^r rī-	tsā-dhandā
should-be-learnt s	so-only entered	was. An	d <i>the-medic</i>	al-profession
śik ^a nyā-che tyā learning-of those				
mul'gā, thôdē-sễ a son, a-little m	dhik ingrajī	sīkūn ta	nyār <u>dz</u> hālā,	, mhan [®] jë
	nore English he	aving-learnt edu	acated (if-)beca	<i>me</i> , <i>then</i>
kõthe-tari chi	k ^a tűn dyi	ivā. No	auk^ryā tyā	div ³ sat
somewhere having-	- <i>employed should</i> -	be-given Em _l	oloyments thos	se in-days
easily used-to-be-go		nt (when-)was-g	ot, then p	romotion-also
lav*kar hōī. rapid used-to-bc.				
na śik [*] tä ä	p ^a lyā śēg	<u>lv</u> นิาร <u>ี-tis</u>	as ^a nūryā di	ikt*ıñ- <u>dv</u> aval
not learning hi	is-own in-the-neig	ghbourhood-just	being th	e-doctor-near
having-lived the-m		having-learnt	soon med	lical-practice
kajữ lāgāvễ	Nărâyan-ră	ivã-nĩ tasễ l	hī sāngīt ^a lē	kĩ, 'tữ
to-make should-be-b	egun. Narayan-1	<i>lao-by that a</i>	lso was-said	that, 'thou
ān ^a khī mgrajī still-more English	learn, then	newly opened	d the-medical	l in-college
tu-lā ghālato.' thee I-will-put.'	But no. At-	ast, 'the-son-of	hobby should-	-be-satisfied,'
asi manät	änün ty	vä-nî daktar		s āp ^a lyā
so in-the-mind l	having-brought hi	m-by doctor		to his-own

42 MARĀTHĪ

mulā- <u>ts</u> ā son-of	neta		cal°vüu g•informed	ty to-7		dzaval near		karāvā he-should-be-mad			aśī such
vinantī request	kēlī ; was-made	āni ; and	tyä-nï-h hım-by-al		ʻmī ʻ <i>I</i>	•		sik ^a vū having-	taught		ayār epared
kar ^ı tö <i>make</i> .	Pan But I	tayār repared	dzhālyā-n becoming-			ā-nё m-by	yā this	gāv 111-to			itrī- edical-
dhandā professio	kart n to-ma		nayē. ' -nol-proper.		šā ich	atī-v conditu		tyās him	āp°l; his-o		hātā- hand-
khālī under	vidyärth an-apprent		_	inyā-c k i ng-c		kabū promi		kēle was-ma	de.		

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Narayan Rao tiled his best with many representations, but Govinda would not be moved. His mind was only set on learning the medical profession. And in those days there were not sufficient means for studying that science

He (Narayan Rao) intended to get his only son employed somewhere when he had become educated after learning a little more English. In those days employment was easily got, and when once employed promotion was rapid. But Govinda had only one thing in his head. He intended, without learning any more English, to become an apprentice under a doctor in the neighbourhood and soon to be a medical practitioner himself. Narayan Rao even told him to learn a little more English and he promised him that he would then send him to the newly opened medical college, but in vain. At last having determined to satisfy his son he informed Doctor Damodar Rao of the boy's object and requested him to take him under his care. The doctor promised to do so, and to teach him on condition that when he became able to practise himself, he should not carry on the business in that village.

ELSEWHERE IN THE DEKHAN.

To the north and west of Poona Marāthī is spoken as a vernacular by most of the Dekhan Ilindus and Musalman Tambōlīs in Bombay Town and Island, and further in Thana, Nasik, and Ahmadnagar.

Bombay Town and Island is a meeting-place for all the different Marāthi subdialects. The real home language is the Marāthi dialect of the Central and Northern Konkan. The usual Dekhan form of the language is, however, spoken by about \$0,000 people. It has no peculiarities of its own, and need not be illustrated by separate specimens.

The principal language of Thana is the dialect of Marāthī which, with slight local variations, is spoken from Daman to Rajapur. It will be dealt with below, under the head of Konkan Standard The usual Dekhan form of Marāthī is spoken by Brahmans and other high castes. The number of speakers has been estimated at 32,000

The principal language of Nasik is Marāthī, shading off into Khāndēśī in the north. This latter language is spoken in the north, on the Khandesh border, where we also find a Bhīl dialect. It has hitherto been classed as a dialect of Marāthī. The materials collected for the Languistic Survey, however, show that it is rather a dialect of Gujarātī, and it will therefore be dealt with in connection with that language. See Vol. ix, Part ii

No specimens have been received of the Marāthī dialect of Nasik. It is, however, almost certain that it does not materially differ from the form which that language assumes in the neighbouring Ahmadnagar. Specimens have been forwarded of two border dialects, spoken in the west of the district. They are the so-called Kōnkanī, which is entirely different from Kōnkanī proper, in the north, and Thākarī in the south. The former is a Bhīl dialect, and the latter will be dealt with in connection with the Marāthī spoken in the Central and Northern Konkan. See below pp. 109 and ff. It is very probable that the current Marāthī of Nasik, especially in the west, has some of the same characteristics. Above the hills, however, the difference between the two forms of speech is so unimportant that no inconvenience can possibly arise from the Nasik dialect being classed under the standard form of Marāthī current in the Dekhan.

To the south of Nasik lies the district of Ahmadnagar, the principal language of which is Marāthī. It is the usual Dekhan form of that language, and it is not necessary to illustrate it further.

Marāṭhī is further spoken all over the Bhor State as the principal language. It is the usual Dekhan form and need not be illustrated by means of a separate specimen. We may only note that t is often added to the second prison plural of the past tense of intransitive verbs. Thus, $tumh\bar{t}$ $g\bar{e}l\tilde{a}t$, you went

In Sholapur the same form of Maratha is the principal language in the north and the west.

Marāthī is also the principal language of the northern part of the Akalkot State and of Pilio and Kurla of the same State. The language of the rest of the State is Kanarese. No specimens have been received, but there is no reason for assuming that the Marāthī of Akalkot differs in any important points from that spoken in Sholapur.

The principal language of the Satara District, as also of the States Phaltan and Audh in the Satara Agency is Marathi with the usual characteristics of the Dokhan. Of the 59,500 speakers in the Phaltan State about 56,000 are stated to be Kunbis. Their dialect does not, however, differ from that of the rest of the population.

The principal language of Belgaum is Kanarese. In the west of the district the bulk of the population speak Standard Marāthī. The figures returned for the different Talukas are as follows:—

Gokak											1,000
Athni			•			•		•		•	10,000
Chikodi								•	•		85,000
Belgaum									•		82,552
Parasgad						•		-		•	4,000
Khanapur											48,381
Sampgaen	•			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	500

Total . 264,463, or, in lound numbers, 265,000

The dialect of Belgaum closely agrees with that of Satara The dental and lingual n are confounded. Thus, we find $ty\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$ and $ty\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, by him The numeral 'one' is written $y\bar{e}k$, a state of affairs which is common in many parts of the territory in which Marathi is a vernacular. The conjunctive participle is sometimes slightly irregular. Thus, $nigh\bar{o}n$, having gone out; $y\bar{e}vun$, having come The verb $h\bar{o}n\bar{e}$, to become, forms the past tense $dz\bar{a}h^al\bar{a}$, where Standard has $dzh\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ Such discrepancies are, however, not sufficiently important to make it necessary to give any specimen of the dialect.

In Jat and Daphlapur, Marāthī is spoken on the north-western border and in a small district half-way between Jat and Karajgi, about Asungi and Julyal. The dialect closely agrees with that of Satara.

Marāthī is also the main language of Kolhapur. The dialect shows all the characteristics of the form of Marāthī spoken in Satara. The tendency to pronounce the short a fully seems here to have been carried to an extreme. In other respects the dialect does not differ from that current in neighbouring districts. The only peculiarity is that a ta is added in the second person plural of the past tense. Thus, ma-lā lōkarā suddhā dilē-nāhīta, to-me a-kid even has-not-been-given-by-you; ēha mēdzavānī tumhī dēt āhāta, you have given a feast.

In the Southern Jaghir States Marāthī is spoken in the North and East. Specimens have been received from Miraj, Sangli, and Kurundwad. They all exhibit the same form of the language as that current in Satara and neighbouring districts. The second person singular of the past tonse of transitive verbs only occasionally adds. The only other peculiarity which needs be mentioned is the preference shown for the word araghā, all

Closely related is also the dialect exhibited in the specimens received from Ramdiug. As in the neighbouring Belgaum dialect the past tense of the verb $\hbar \delta n \hat{e}$, to become, is $dz \hat{a} \hbar^* l \hat{a}$ and not $dz \hbar \hat{a} l \hat{a}$.

As will have appeared from the preceding remarks Marathi is remarkably uniform all over the Dekhan. In order to illustrate the widespread tendency to pronounce the short a fully it will be sufficient to give the first lines of a version of the Parable of the Produgal Son which has been received from Kolhapur. The tendency has here been carried to the extreme

[No. 3.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP!

MARĀTHĪ.

(STATE KOLHAPUR.)

Könā ökā manushyāsa döna mulagē hötē. Tyāntīla dhākatā āpalyā bāpāsa mhanālā, 'bābā mālamattē-tṣā dzō bhāga ma-lā yāvayā-tṣā tō ma-lā dē.' Maga tyā-nē āpalī jinagī tyā-nā vātūna dilī. Pudhē phār divasa lōtalē nāhīta tō-tṣa dhākatyā-nē tī sarva dzamā-karūna ēkā dūra-ohyā dēśā-ohyā mārga dhārilā, āni tōthē udhalēpanā-nē vāgūna āpalā aivadza gamāvilā.

Standard Marāthī, in the usual Dekhan form, is also spoken to a great extent in Janjira, Kolaba, and Ratnagiri, and it has influenced the speech of the educated classes all over the Konkan. No estimates are, however, available with regard to the proportion of the population in those districts which speak the Dekhan form of the language, and the reported figures have, therefore, been put down as all belonging to the slightly different form which Marāthī assumes in the Central Konkan.

Marathi is also the principal language in the north-western portion of the Nizam's territory, which does not fall within the scope of the present Survey.

The Marathi spoken in Berar and the Central Provinces differs in some respects from the form which the language has in the Dekhan, and it will, therefore, be separately dealt with below. The usual Dekhan form is, however, also spoken by a considerable portion of the population in Buldana.

The District of Buldana is the meeting ground between the two forms of Maratha current in the Dekhan and in Berar respectively. The west of the district belongs to the former, and the east to the latter.

The first few lines of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follow will show that the current dialect of Western Buldana in no important points differs from the usual Dekhan Standard. We may only note the frequent use of va instead of $\bar{a}m$, and. A list of Standard Words and Phrases which has not been reproduced gives the forms $\bar{a}mu$ - $ch\tilde{e}$, our; $\bar{a}mh\bar{i}$ $\bar{a}h\bar{o}nt$, we are; $tumh\bar{i}$ $\bar{a}h\bar{a}nt$, you are. These do not occur in the specimen.

[No. 4.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀŢIII.

(DISTRICT BULDANA.)

कोणा एका माणमास दोन मुलगे होते। त्या-पैकीं धाकटा वापास म्हणाला, वावा माभ्या हिंगाची जिनगी मला द्या। म्हणून वापाने आपली जिनगी दोघाँ-मध्ये वाँटून दिली। घोद्याच दिवसाँनी धाकटा मुलगा आपली सर्व जिनगी घेकन देगाँतरास गेला; व तेथे त्यान चैनवाजी-मध्ये आपली मर्व जिनगी उडविली। त्याचा सर्व पैसा ह्या रितीने खर्च भाल्या-वर त्या देगाँत एका मोठा दुष्काळ पडला। व त्या-मुळे त्यास फार द्दात पडूँ लगली। नंतर तो एका गृहस्या-कडे जाकन राहिला। त्या गृहस्याने ह्याला आपले शितांत डुकरें राखण्यास ठेविलें।

Könā ēkā mān'sās dön mul'gë hötë. Tyā-paikĩ dhāk tā Certain were. Them-from-among to-man 1100 80118 the-younger bāpās mhanālā, 'bābā, hiśā-chī dyā' mājhyā jin°gī ma-lā to-the-father sard, give' father, of-meshare-of property me-to Mhanun băpā-në dōghã-madhyễ vätim āpili jin'gī Therefore the-father-by his-own property both-among having-divided dilī Thōdyā-<u>ts</u> div's i-ni dhāk*tā mul*gā ăp'li sarv was-given A-few-only days-after allthe-nounger sonhis-own jın°gĭ. ghēūn dőśãtras tēthể tvā-nē gēlā; ∇a having-taken to-another-country property there him-by went; and chain-bājī-madhyē āpili sai v jin*gi udavili. Tyā-<u>ts</u>ā sarv merry-making-into his-own allall IInm-of property was-squandered. paisā hyā ritī-nē dēśãť ēk kharts dzhālyā-var tyū money this manner-by spent having-become-after that into-country one möthä dushkāl padalā; va padĩi lāgʻlī. tyā-mulē tvās dadāt phār mighty famine fell; and that-for to-him great difficulty to-fall began. Nantar tö ēkā grihasthā-kadē dzāūn rābilā. Tyā grihasthā-nč hvā-lā he one householder-to having-gone lived. Then That householder-by him-to āp⁴lē śētãt duk°rē rākh°nyās thēvile. his-own anto-field swine to-kep it-was-kept.

The dialect of Basim was originally reported to be the Dekhan form of Marāthī An inspection of the specimens forwarded from that district has however shown that they share most of the features characteristic of the Marāthī spoken in Berar and the Central Provinces, and they have, accordingly, been transferred to that dialect. It is, on the other hand, probable that some of the educated classes speak the Standard language of the Marāthī literature, as is the case in all Marāthī speaking districts.

BROKEN DIALECTS OF THE DEKHAN.

Marāthī is remarkably uniform throughout the Dekhan. In the south-west we find colonies of Könkanī in Belgaum, and, in the Ghats, dialects are spoken which are intermediate between the forms of Marāthī current in the Dekhan and in the Northern and Central Konkan. These will be dealt with below in connexion with the language of Thana and the Konkan.

In the south and east Marāthī borders on Kanarese, and in Bijapur and Dharwar we meet with dialects which have, to a small extent, been influenced by that language. This influence is, however, not very important. The chief result which it has effected is a weakening of the sense of gender, and a confusion between the active and passive constructions of transitive verbs

The number of Marāthī speakers in Bijapur has been estimated at 27,680. Most of these speak ordinary Marāṭhī. A corrupt form is, however, spoken among the rustics, and will be illustrated by means of a specimen.

This dialect mainly agrees with the Standard Marāthī of the Dekhan. In some points, however, it has features similar to the Marāthī dialects of the Konkan.

Thus we find a for Standard \bar{e} ; n for \bar{v} ; dropping of aspirates; dropping of v before i, \bar{v} , and \bar{e} ; insertion of v before other vowels, and so on Compare tata for $t\bar{e}th\bar{e}$, there; kuni for $L\bar{o}n\bar{i}$, some one; $n\bar{a}\bar{i}$ for $n\bar{a}h\bar{i}$, not, irudd for viruddh, against; $y\bar{s}$ for $v\bar{s}$, twenty; $y\bar{e}l$ for $v\bar{e}l$, time—Compare also forms such as $ly\bar{o}k\bar{a}n$, by the son; $ty\bar{a}s-ni$, to him; hai, he is, and so on.

It has already been remarked that the genders are liable to be confounded, and that the different constructions of the verbs are not correctly distinguished. Thus, we find samda and $samdi\ jindag\bar{\imath}$, all property; $ty\bar{a}\cdot chy\bar{a}$ mulās $m\bar{\imath}$ lai $phat^*k\bar{e}$ $m\bar{a}r^*l\bar{o}$ $\bar{a}h\bar{e}$, I have beaten his son with many stripes.

All these points are, however, relatively unimportant, and there will be no difficulty if understanding the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows.

[No. 5.]
INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĂŢIIÎ

BIJAPUR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BIJAPUR.)

कुनि योक मानसाला दोन ल्योक होते। त्यातला व्हानगा वापास म्हंटला. वावा. माजे वाटनीचा माल मला है। मग लोन वाटनी करून दिलि। मग घोडक्या दिवसानि दाकटा ल्योक समिद माल गोळा करून गेवून-भ्यानि दूर मुलकास गेला। तत उद्केपन कार्न समिद् जिंदगी हाळ केला। मग समिद् जिंदगी हाळ कोल्या-वर मोटा दुक्तळ पडला। त्या-मुळ त्यासिन अडचन होवू लागली। तवा तकडच योक मानसा-जवळ चाकरी राहिला। लेन लासनि इकर राकायला आपले मेताला लावून दिला। तवा डुकरानी खानैच पेंड खावून-प्रयानि आपल पोट भराव म्हंटला। तरी त्याला जुनी जाईच दिले नॉई। मग त्यो मुदी-वर वेव्न-प्रवानि म्हंटला, माज वापाच किति चाकरासनि पोटभर खावाला है। आनि म्या भुक्तेन उपासि मरतो। मी उट्टन वापा-कड जाईन, आनि तेला म्हनू की, वावा रे, स्या आकासचा दुस्द आनि तुच्या म्होर पाप कीला है। अता-पासून म्या तुज ल्योक म्हनन्याला लायक म्हव। आपले चाकरीचे गद्या-वानि मला ठैव। मग लो उटून आपल वापा-कडिस गेला। लो अज्ञिन टूर हैस्तवर वाप लेला पाइन कळकून धावून-भ्यानि लेचे गठ्यास मिटि घाटलि, आनि लेचा मुका घेटला। मग ल्योकान लासनि म्हंटल वावा, परलोकाचे इसद आनि तुच्या न्होर म्यापाप कील्या। अता-पासून तुजा ल्योक म्हनन्यास म्या लायक नॉई.। मग वापानी चाकरास सांगिटला, चांगल अंगराका आन्न त्यासनि घाला। त्येचे हाता-मंदि आंगठि आनीक खेचा पायात जोडा घाला। खावून-प्रयानि आनन्द वारः। का म्हंटल तर, ह्यो ल्योक मेल्याला फिरून वाचला है। गमावृन गेल्याला मिकाला है। तवा ते क्षणाल जाले॥

तका खेचा घोरला ल्योक सेतात होता। त्यो घरा-पासी आल्या-वर खेन गाना वजाना ऐकल। तका गद्धातला योक गडीस बोलावून द्रचारला, है काय है। खेन त्यासिन सांगिटले की, तुजा भाड आला है। आनि त्यो तुजा बापास जुगाल मिकाला म्हनून-साटि मीट जीवन कीला है। तका त्यो रागाला येवून आत जाईना। येच्या-करता वाप भाइर येजन-ग्यानि त्यासिन समजावू लागला। मग त्येन वापाला फिरून बोलला की, वग, इतक वरीस तुजी चाकरि करती, तुजी गोट्ट म्या कवाच मोडली नाँई। तरी म्या माजे सोवती-वरांवर चैन करन्यास तु मला कवाच श्रेकीचि पिछू वि दिला नाँई। आनि तुज जिन्दिगि कसविनीचे-वरांवर समिद हाळ केल्याला हा तुजा ल्योक आला है, म्हनून त्येच-साटि मीट जेवन केल हैस। तवा त्येन त्यास म्हंटला की, लेका, तु हमेषा माजे संगाट है। माज समद जिन्दगी तुजीच है। पन क्यालि कुणालि करांव ह्यो रास्त है। का म्हंटला तर ह्यो तुजा भाउ मेला होता त्यो फिरून जिवंत जाला है; आनि गमावला होता त्यो मिळाला है॥

[No. 5.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀTHĪ.

BIJAPUR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT BIJAPUR.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

yök män sälä dön lyök hōtē Tyāt lā lhān**'**gā Certain one - man-to two sons were. Them-in-from the-younger bāpās mhant°lā, 'bābā, mā<u>dz</u>ē vāt³nī-tsā māl ma-lā dē.' to-the-father said, 'father, of-me share-of property me-to give.' Then dili. Mag thōd*kyā div*sā-ni vāt nì karūn dāk*tā him-by share having-made was-given. Then a-few in-days the-younger lyők sam'di māl gölā karūn gēvūn-šyāni dūr mul'kās all property together having-made having-taken far to-a-country karūn sam*di jind*gi hāl gēlā. Tata ud°lépan kēlā. went There spendthriftness having-made all property ruin made Then sam*di kēlyā-var mötā dukūl pad^alā. Tyā-mul tyās-ni jind*gī hāl property ruin made-after great famine fell. Therefore to-him allTavā tak"da-ts yök mān"sā-dzaval tsāk"rī adachan hõvū lāgilī. difficulty to-become began Then there one man-near in-service Tyēn tyās-ni dukar nākāy*lā āp*lē sētā-lā lāvūn lived. Im-by to-him swine to-keep his-own to-the-field having-employed Tavā duk*rā-nī khānē-<u>ts</u>a pēnd khāvūn-śyām āp**·l**a it-was-given. Then the-swine-by eating-of hvsk having-caten his-own belly bharāva mhant'lā Tarī tvā-lā kunî kāi ts dılē should-be-filled he-thought. Yet him-to by-anybody anything was-given Mag tyō suddī-var yēvūn-śyāni mbant^alā, 'mā<u>dz</u>a bāpā-<u>ts</u>a kitı senses-on having-come said, not. Then he 'my father-of how-many tsāk rās-ni pēt-bhar khāyālā hai Āni myā bhukēn upāsi mar tē to-servants belly-full to-eat (there) is. And I hunger-with fasting die. bāpā-kada <u>dz</u>āīn, āni tē-lā mhanū "bābā-rē, kī. I having-risen father-to will-go, and him-to will-say that, "father-O, ākās- \underline{t} sā-irudd āni tujvā mhōr pāp kēlā hai Atā-pāsūn by-me the-heaven-of-against and of-thee before sin done is. Now-from myā tudza lyōk mhan°nyā-lā lāyak nhava $\bar{\Lambda}$ p°lē \underline{ts} āk°rī- \underline{ts} ē gadyā-vāni thy son to-be-called fit am-not Thy-own service-of servant-like ma-lā thēv", Mag tyō utūn āp"la bāpā-kadēs gēlā Tyō adzūni me-to keep" Then he having-risen his-own father-to went. IIeyet

tyē-lā pāhūn dŭr - hai-stavar bán kal*kalūn far the-father him-to having-seen having-taken-pity is-meanvohileghātali, āni dhāvūn-syāni tvē-tsē galyās miti t<u>vē-ts</u>ā mukā having-run him-of to-the-neck embracing was-put, and him-of a-kiss Mag lyökän tyäs-ni mhant*la, 'bābā, par*lökā-tsē-irudd was-taken. Then the-son-by to-him was-said, 'father, the-next-world-of-against tujvā mhör myä pāp kēlyā. Atā-pāsūn tudzā lyōk mhan nyās and of-thee before by-me sin is-done Now-from thy son to-be-called nãī.' Mag bāpā-nī tsākarās sāngitalā, 'tsāngala myā lāvak I fit am-not.' Then the-father-by to-servants it-was-told, 'good tyās-ni ghālā. Tyē-<u>ts</u>ē hātā-mandi āng^{*}ti, ang°rākā ānūn a-coat having-brought to-him put. $\mathcal{H}is$ hand-on a-ring, and tvē-chā pāyāt dzodā ghālā. Khāvūn-svāni ānand karū. Κâ his on-the-feet a-shoe put Having-caten joy we-shall-make. Why tar, hyō lyök mēlyālā, phirūn vā<u>ts</u>°lā hai: gamāvūn (if-)it-is-said, then, this son had-been-dead, again recovered is; having-lost gēlyālā, miļālā hai.' Tavā tē kuśāl dzālē. he-had-gone, got he-is' Then they joyous became.

Tavá tye-tsa thorala lyök sētāt hōtā. Tyō gharā-pāsī ālyā-var Thenhiscldcst son in-the-field was. He house-near coming-on tyên gầnâ badzână aik'la. Tavă gadyât'lâ yōk gadis him-by singing music was-heard. Then servants-in-being one to-servant Tyen tyas-ni sangițile ki, bolavun itsarla, 'hē kāy hai?' having-called he-asked, 'this what is?' Him-by to-him it-was-told that, tudzā bhāu ālā hai. Āni tyō tujā bāpās kuśāl milālā thu brother come is. And he thy to-father safe was-got jēvan kēlā hai.' mhanūn-sāti mot Tavā tyō rāgā-lā yêvûn therefore great a-feast made is.' Then he anger-to having-come in dzāj-nā. Yē-chyā-kar'tā bāp bhāir yēun-syāni tyās-ni samedzāyū would-not-go. Of-this-for the-father out having-come to-him to-persuade tyên bāpā-lā phirūn bŏl^lā hī. bag, began. Then him-by the-father-to again it-was-said that, 'sec, so-many möd^alī nāī. varis tuil tsāk ri kar to, tujī gott myā kavā ts Tari service I-do, thy story by-me ever was-broken not. the Still years mādzē söb'tī-barābar chain karanyās ma-lā kavā-ts f 13 friends-with merriment to-make (by-)thee me-to ever Ι of-me nāī. Āni tudza jind'gī kas'binī-tsē-barābar dilâ pillū-bi śēlī-chi sheen-of young-one-even was-given not. And thy properly of-harlots-with samadi hāl kēlyālā, hā tudzā ālā hai, mhanün tyē-tsasāti lvök waste made, this thy son come is, therefore him-for all н 2

tvēn tyās mhant^alā λī, hais.' Tavā ' lēkā, kēla jēvan mota Then him-by to-him et-was-said that, is-by-thee.' son, madegreata-feast Mādza samada ind°gī hai. turi-ts haı. mādzē-sangāt haméshā fu allMyproperty thinc-alone of-me-with artis. สโรยสบุร thou $K\bar{a}$ mhant'la. hyō rāst hai. tar. kyāli-kuśāli karāva Pan is. Why(if-)it-is-said, thisrightthen, should-be-made iou-merriment But' dzālā givant hai: bhāu mēlā hōtā, tvō plurūn āni tudzā hyō becomeheagain alive is: and brother deadwas, thu this hai.' mīlālā hōtā, tyō 28 he got lost was.

The current language of Dharwar is Kanarcse According to information collected for the Linguistic Survey there are, however, about 44,000 people in that district who talk Marāthī. The educated class, especially those who have been trained in schools and colleges, use the Standard form of that language, while the other classes speak a dialect which shows some traces of Kanarese influence.

The Marāthī Kun'bīs in the Dharwar and Kalghatgi Talukas in the west of the district bordering on Kanara are said to speak a dialect called Kulvādī. The number of speakers has been estimated at 3,000.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases in Kulvādī has been received from the Commissioner. It shows that the dialect in some points agrees with the form of Marāthī current in the Konkan. Thus, we find the present tense of the verb substantive formed as follows.—

Singular	1	$h\widetilde{\overline{a}}vu$	Plural	1	hāy
	2	hās		2	$h\bar{a}y$
	3	$h\bar{a}u$		3	ħāŧ

Similarly we also find forms such as tu $m\bar{a}r^at\bar{e}s$, thou strikes; $t\bar{o}$ $m\bar{a}r^at\bar{q}s\bar{s}$, he strikes; $tum\bar{i}$ $m\bar{a}r^aty\bar{a}s\bar{s}$, you strike; $ty\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ $m\bar{a}r^aty\bar{a}t$, they strike In the past tense we find forms such as $ty\bar{a}n$ $m\bar{a}r^aly\bar{a}n$, he struck, $ty\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ $m\bar{a}r^aly\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, they struck, etc.

In the future we may note forms such as $tum\bar{\iota}$ $m\bar{a}r^a \xi \bar{a}l\bar{\iota}$, you will strike; $ty\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}$ $m\bar{a}r^a ty\bar{a}l\bar{\iota}$, they will strike

In other respects Kul $^{3}v\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ does not seem to differ from the usual form of Mar $\bar{a}th\bar{i}$ spoken in the Dekhan.

The Marāthī dialect of Dharwar is, in some places, influenced by the neighbouring Kanarese. The pronunciation is said to be broad and rough as in that language. The various genders and the different verbal constructions are sometimes confounded: thus, $\bar{a}p^{\alpha}l\bar{a}$ (for $\bar{a}p^{\alpha}l\bar{i}$) sarv $jind^{\alpha}g\bar{i}$, all his property; $grihasth\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$ (instead of $-chy\bar{a}$) $ghar\bar{i}$, in a citizen's house; tu $m\bar{e}j^{\alpha}v\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ $dil\bar{e}$, thou gavest a feast, $m\bar{i}$ $p\bar{a}p$ $k\bar{e}l\bar{o}$, I did sin, and so on.

The two specimens which follow illustrate this mixed form of Marāthī. It will be seen that the disorepancies are not very important.

[No. 6.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀŢĦĨ.

DHARWAR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DHARWAR.)

SPECIMEN I.

एक मनुष्याला दोन मुले होते। आणि त्या-पैकी धाकटा मुलगा त्याच्या वापाला म्हणाला की, वावा जिन्दगी-पैकी माभी हिशाला येणार भाग मला दे। तेवा त्याचा बाप आपला जिन्दगी विभाग करून दिला। काहि दिवसा-नन्तर लहान मलगा आपला सर्व जिन्दगी घेवन दृर देशाला गेला। तेथे तो आपला सर्व जिन्दगी लफंगिरीन नाग केला। तो आपला सर्व जिन्दगी खर्च केल्या-नन्तर त्या देशात मोठा दुष्काळ पडला। तेवा तो आपला पोठाला काहि नाही असे पाइन त्या गावा-पैकी एका गृहस्थाची घरी जावून राहिला। तो गृहस्य त्याला डुकर संरचण करायाला आपला भेताला पाठविला। तेथे तो डुकर खाण्याची पेंडीने आपला पोट भरायाला द्रच्छा केला, तरी ते मुघा त्याला कोणी-ही दिले नाही। तेवा तो ग्राधि-वर येवून असे म्हणाला की, माभ्या वापा जवक पुष्कक नवकराला पोठभर अन मिळते। असे असून मी उपवास मरतो। मी आता द्रयन साभ्या वापा-कड जावून म्हणतो की, वावा मी तुभ्या-पुढे व परलोका विरुद्ध पाप केलो । आता तुमचा मुलगा म्हणून घ्यायाला मी योग्य नाही । मला तुमच्या नवकरा-पैकी एक करून ध्या। असे वीलून तो आपला वावा-कडे गेला। तो अजून ट्र होता तेव्हाच त्याचा वाप त्याला पाहन मोट्या अन्तः करणाने त्याच्या-कडे पळत जावून त्याच्या गळ्याला मिटि घालून चुंविला। तेवा तो मुलगा म्हणाला की, वावा, परलोका-विमृद्ध व तुमच्या समचम पाप भी कीला। आता तुमचा मुलगा म्हणून घ्यायाला योग्य नाही। हे ऐकून वाप आपला नवकर लोकाला असे सांगितला की, उत्तम प्रकारचे आंगरखा आण्न त्याला घाला, त्याच्या वीटात आंगठी घाला, आणखी पायात नोडे घाला। अम्ही जीवण करून धानंदाने राहू। कारण हा माभा मुलगा मेल्या-सारखा भाला होता

आता तो जीवंत आहे, गेला होता तो आता मिळाला। सर्वाना हे ऐकून आनन्द भाला॥

त्याचा घोरला मुलगा शिता-मधे होता। शिताहून परत येताना घरा-जवळ नृत्य आणि गायन ऐकुन, आज काय आहे, म्हणून आपला नवकरा-पैकी एकाला बोलाबून विचारला। तुका सहीदर आला आहे म्हणून तो नवकर सांगितला, आणखी तो पुनः सुरचित येवून भेटला-मुळे तुका वाप मेजवानी वगैरे आनंदाचा कृत्य केला आहे। हे ऐकून तो रागाबून घरा वाहेर उसा राहिला। तेव्हा त्याचा वाप वाहर येजन त्याला विनन्ती कक लागला। त्याला मुलगा बोलला की, पहा, मी इतके दिवस तुमचे सेवा करीत आहे। तुमचा अन्ना मी कधी-ही मोडलो नाही। असे असून माम्या सिही बरोवर चैनि करायाला मला कधी-ही सवड दिले नाही। परन्तु तुकाा सर्व संपत रांडवाजीने हरलेला तुका मुलगा आल्या वरीवर तृत्याच्या करिता मेजवानी दिले। त्याला वाप सांगितले की, तृ नेहमी माम्या-जवळ असतोस, माभा सर्व जिन्दगी तुकाच आहे। आता तृ आनन्दी व संतोषी व्हावा असावा होतास। कारण हा तुका वंधु मेलेला जीवंत आहे आणि गेलेला सांपडला आहे॥ [No. 6. INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀŢĦĪ.

DHARWAR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DHARWAR.)

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Ēk	manushyā-	lā dōn	mulê	hōtē.	Āni	tyā	-paikī
A-certain	man-to	tivo	sons	were.	And	them-f	rom-among
dhāk°tā	mul ^a gā	lyā-chyā	bāpā-l	ā m	hanālā	kī,	ʻ bābā,
the-younger	son	his	father-	to	said	that,	'father,
jind ^a gī-pa	ik ī n	nājhē hi	sā-lā y	ēnār l	ohāg 'm	na-lā dē.	Tēvā
the-property-from-among		my sha	re-to to-	come po	rtion m	e-to give	.' Then
tyā- <u>ts</u> ā bāp	$ar{a}p^{a}lar{a}$	jind [,] gi	vībhāg-	karûn d	lilā.	Kāhi div	r'sā-nantar
his father	r his-own	property	having-d	ivided g	ave	Some d	ays-afte r
lahān n	ul'gā āp'lā	i sarv	$ m jind^3gi$	ghi	ēvūn	dür	dēśā-lā
the-younger	son his-on	on all	property	havin	g-taken	a-far	country-to
gēlā. Tēthē							
went. There	e he his-ow	n all	property	riotous-l	iving-by	squander	ed. He
āp¹lā sarv							
his-own all	property 7	had-expend	ded-after	that i	n-country	, a-great	famine
pad ^a lā. Tēvā							
fell. Then	n he his-	own bel	lly-lo a	nything	is-not	so see	ing that
gāvā-paikī	ēkā	grihasthā-	chī gha	ri <u>d</u>	zāvūn	rāhilā.	$_{ m o}$
villuge-from-an							
grihasth t	yā-lā duk ^a ra	samrak	shan ka	rāyā-lā	āp°lā	śētā-lā	pāthavilā.
householder h	im-to swinc	protea	ction to	-make	his-own	field-to	sent.
Tēthē tō dī	ak ^a ra khān	yā-chī j	pēndī-nē	$ar{a}\mathbf{p}^{\mathbf{q}}\mathbf{l}ar{a}$	$p\bar{o}t$	bharāyā-lā	ichchhā
There he s	wine catı	ng-of h	usks-with	his-own	belly	to-fill	voish
kēlā, tarī							
made, yet t	that even	him-to	by-anyboo	ly-even	was-given	not.	Then he
śuddhi-var		isë ml ia	nālā ki	i, 'mā	jhyā l	pāpā- <u>dz</u> aval	pushkal
senses-on he	aving-come	80 sa	id the	it, 'm	y f	ather-near	many
nav ^a k ^a rā-lā p							
servants-to be							
	thūn mājl						
I now from	m-here my	fat.	her-to h	aving-gon	e នេះ	that,	"father,

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tujhyā pudhē va par-lokā-viruddh pāp kēlo, ātā tum-tsā mulgă mī next-world-against sin did, of-thee before and 11010 vour 8022 yögy nähi; ma-lä tum-chyä ghyāyā-lā mī nay kra-paiki mhanūn -having-said to-take I worthy am-not; me-to your servants-from-among ghyā,"' Asē āpalā bābā-kadē gēlā bölün ŧō Tō. āk take." So having-said he his-own father-to one having-made went. He tēvhā-<u>ts</u> tyā-<u>ts</u>ā bāp fyā-lā pähūn adzūn dür hōtā mothva father liis him having-seen far just-then greatyet. 1008 antahkarunā-nē tyā-chyā-kadē palat dzāvūn tyā-chyā galyā-lā miti compassion-with him-of-towards running having-gone his neck-to embracing to multga mhanála ¹ bābā, chumbilā. Tēvā kī, par-lokāthat, 'father, next-worldhaving-put Lissed. Then the said8011 tum-chyā samaksham pāp nıī kēlā. Ătā viruddh va tum-tsa sin I did.Now your in-presence against and your mul'gā mhanūn ghyāyā-lā yōgy nāhī.' Ήē nikün bāp son having-said to-take worthy am-not. This having-heard the-father navskār lōkā-lā sängithä ki, 'uttam prakar-chē angarkhā กรจี people-to so told that, 'the-best sort-of his-own servant a-coat ghālā, ānikhī ānūn tyā-lā ghālā; tvā-chyā bōtāt ñńg⁴thĭ having-brought him-to put; hison-finger a-ring put, and pāvāt dzödē ghālā; ambī jēvan karūn ānandā-nē rāhū: put; wc ou-feet shoes feeding having-done gladness-with will-live; kāran hā mādzhā mul'gā mēlyā-sār'khā dzhālā hōtā. āfā tō jivant because this alive277.1/ 8011 dead-like become 1CA8. 11010 he āhē; gēlā hōtā. tō ātā milālā.' Sarvā-nā hē aikūn ānand he now is-obtained.' All-to this having-heard joy 15: gone ૧૦લક, dzhālā became.

thor lā mulgā sētā-madhē hotā Sētā-hūn vētā-nā parat Hiseldest son field-in was. Field-from back tohile-coming gāyan gharā-<u>dz</u>aval āhē?' nıity āni aıkūn, fādz kāv singing having-heard, 'to-day what there-is?' house-near dancing and navakarā-paikī mhanūn āp¹lã ēkā-lā bölävün vichārflā. Tudzā having-said his-own servants-from-among one-to having-called he-asked 'Thy' salıödar ālā āhē.' mhanūn tō nav∘kar sāngitalā; 'ānakhī tō punah brother come is.' having-said that servant told; ' and he again surakshit yēyūn bhēt lā-mulē tudzhā bāp mēj vānī, vagairē, in-good-health having-come met-because thy father fcast. ānandā-tsā krity kēlā āhē.' Ηâ aikūn tŏ rāgāvūn rejoscing-of done is' This having-heard action he being-angry

yëūn gharā-bāhēr ubhā rāhilā. Tēvhā tvā-tsā bāp bāhēr hovse-outside-of standing remained. Then hisfather out having-come kī, 'pahī, tyā-lā vinantī karū lāg'lā. Tyā-lā mul^agā bol^alā ${
m mi}$ it*kē entreaty to-do began. Him-to the-son said that, see, Ι so-many him-to divas tum-chē karīt āhē, tum-tsā adnyā $\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{i}}$ kadh i-hi mōd⁴lō sēvā orderΙ ever-even brokedaysyour service doing am, 40111 nāhī: asē asūn mājhyā snēhī-barōbar chaini karāvā-lā ma-lā kadhī-hī friends-with merriment to-make me-to ever-even not; having-been my80 Parantu tudzhā sarv rānd-bāii-nē hardelā savad dilö nāhī. sampat liberty given not. Butthyallwealth harlotry-by who-has-wasted dile' tudzhā mul⁴gā ālyā-barōbar tū tyā-chyā karitā mējavānī thyson came-as-soon-as thou of-him for a-feast gavest.' Tyā-lā bāp sangit le kī, ʻtū néh^ami mānhyā-dzaval as tos, mā<u>dz</u>hā that, Him-to the-father said' thou always of-me-near art. my $ilde{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{t}$ ā vhāvāsarv jindagī tudzhā-ts āhē tű ānandī va santōshī thou happy and contented shouldst- αll properly thine-alone is. Now hā tudzhā bandhu mēlēlā, jīvant asāvā-hōtās : kāran āhē; āni gēlēlā, have-been; because this thy brotherdead, aliveis; and gone, sãpad°lā āhē.

found is.'

[No. 7.] INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀTHĪ.

DHARWAR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DHARWAR.)

SPECIMEN II.

A FOLK-TALE.

येक कीला व कोली होती। ते येक दिवस फिरण्यास गेले। जाताना वाटे-मधे येक वाघाचा घर होता, ते पाहून कोली, मी दृष्टेच प्रमूत होतो, म्हणू लागली। है ऐकृन कोला म्हणाला की, अग रांहे, बाघ सायंकाळी येवून तुला खाऊन टाकील। खाल्या-वर तुमा जन्म नाहिसा होतो। है न ऐकता कोली वाघाच्या घरात गेली। सायंकाळी वाघ आपल्या घराला आला। है पाइन कोला कीलीस, मूल क्यासाठी रहतात, म्हणून विचारला। त्याला ती, वाघाचा मास दे म्हणतात, म्हणून सांगितली। त्याला कोला, आणून दिलो आहे की, म्हणून उत्तर दिला। हे ऐकृन कोली, ते सगळे संपले म्हणून सांगितली। तेवडे वाघ ऐकृन, सला सारतात, म्हणून पळून गेला। इतक्यात मूल घोर माली आणि आई व मूल मिळून आपल्या घराला लाडन प्रपंच कर लागले! वाघ ते गेलेले पाहून आपल्या घराला आला॥

[No. 7.]

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀŢHĨ.

DHARWAR DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DHARWAR.)

SPECIMEN II.

A FOLK-TALE.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Yēk kölā va kālī hōtī. ${
m Te}$ vēk divas phir¹nyās fox and a-vixen there-were. They one day to-walk went. väghä-<u>ts</u>ä ghar Dzātā-nā vātē-madhē yēk hōtā, tē pāhūn While-going the-way-on one tiger-of house that having-seen was, 'mī īthē-ts prasūt-hōtō,' mhanū lāg⁵lī. kölî. Πē aikūn 'I here-only deliver,' to-say This having-heard beganthe-vixen, kölá mhanālā kī, ʻaga rāndē, vägh säyankäli yevûn the-tiger in-the-evening having-come said that, 'oh-you hussy, the-fox khālyā-yar khāūn tākīl; tudzhā janm nāhi-sā tu-la thee-to having-eaten will-throw; having-eaten-after thy life nothing-like vāghā-chyā gharāt the-tiger-of un-the-house na aik⁴tā kōlī Ήē gēlī. hōtō.' not hearing the-vixen will-be' This went. Sāvankāli vāgh āp°lyā gharā-lā ālā. kōlā Πē pāliūn In-the-evening the-tiger his-own house-to came This having-seen the-fox 'mūl kašāsāthī radotāt?' mhanūn vichārlā. Tvā-lā kölis. to-the-vixen, 'children what-for are-crying?' so asked. That-to dē," mhan^atāt,' mhanūn sāngit^alī. tī, '"vāghā-tsā mās Tvā-lā kölā, she, "tiger-of flesh give," (they)-say,' so told. That-to the-fox, dilö-āhē kī,' mhanūn uttar dilā. I-have-given don't-yov-sec,' so reply gave. fanūn Πē having-brought This gave. sampⁿlē,' mhanūn ٠tō aikūn köli, sagilē sängit°lī. all was-finished, having-heard the-viwen, 'that she-told. 80 mār^atāt,' mhanūn aikūn, 'ma-lā Tēvadē vägh That-much the-tiger having-heard, 'me (they)-kill,' saying having-run dzháli fhör āni Itkyāt mūl gēlā. In-the-meantime the-children grown-up and the-mother becamewent. mılün äp*lyā gharā-lā dzāūn prapañeh va mul milun ap lya ghara-la <u>dz</u>aun prapaneh the-children together their-own hovse-to having-gone worldly-living and Vāgh tē gēlēlē pāhūn āpalyā gharā-lā ālā. karū lāg^lē. The-tiger they gone having-seen his-own house-to came. began. to-do r 2

-60 MARĀT'HĪ.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there were a fox and a vixen. One day they were strolling about and came to the house of a tiger. Said the vixen, 'here and nowhere else I will be delivered of my cubs.' When the fox heard this he said, 'O you hussy, when the tiger comes home in the evening he will devour you and your life will be at an end.' The vixen did not listen to him but entered the house of the tiger. The tiger returned in the evening, and the fox, when he had seen this, said to the vixen, 'why are the children crying.' Answered the vixen, 'they ask me to give them some tiger's flesh.' The fox answered, 'have I not already given you some?' When the vixen heard this she said, 'that has all been consumed.' The tiger heard this and ran away thinking that they would kill him. In due time the children given up. Then the mother went with them to then own house, and they began to hive there. When the tiger saw that they were gone he came back to his own house.

KONKAN STANDARD.

Marāthī is the principal language of all the coast districts of the Bombay Presidency, from Daman in the north to Rajapur in the south. The northern part of this territory from Daman to Umbargaon, is divided between Marāthī and Gujarātī, and the influence of the latter language is also felt farther south, the vocabulary being, to some extent, Gujarātī. This element is not, however, strong.

In the south Marāṭhī gradually develops into Kōnkanī, the connecting links being Sangamēśvarī and Bānkōtī on one side, and Kudālī on the other.

The Marāthī spoken in the territory defined above is closely related to the language of the Dekhan. In some characteristic points, however, it differs, much in the same way as is the case with the Marāthī of Berar and the Contral Provinces.

It has already been remarked, and it will be shown below, that the dialects spoken by the Kun'bīs of Poona and the Thākurs of Nasik mainly agree with the Marāthī of the Konkan. They will therefore, so far as materials are available, be dealt with in connection with that form of the language.

The Marāṭhī of the Dekhan is the language of the literature and of the Government. Through the gradual spreading of education it more and more influences the dialects of the coast districts, and the specimens received from Kolaba, Janjira, and Ratnagiri, and professing to be written in Sangamēśvarī, one of the dialects of the Konkan, have proved to be in the usual language of Marāṭhī literature. Most of them represent the speech of the educated classes, which is more or less influenced by the written language all over the Konkan.

The Portuguese missionaries, to whom we are indebted for a grammar of the dialect as spoken in Salsette, call it the northern dialect of Könkanī. It is not, however, a dialect of Könkanī, but a form of speech intermediary between that dialect and the Standard form of Marāṭhī current in the Dekhan. It may conveniently be designated as the Konkan Standard of Marāṭhī. This name cannot lead to confusion. It has long been customary to state that Marāṭhī has two main dialects, one belonging to the Konkan, and the other current in the Dekhan. The Konkan Standard corresponds to the former. It must, however, be borne in mind that this dialect is different from Kōnkanī, the language of the Southern Konkan.

The Konkan Standard has been returned under a bewildering mass of different names, partly denoting locality and partly easte or occupation To the former class belong Bānkōtī, Damanī, Ghātī, Māolī, and Sangamēśvarī; to the latter Āg²rī, Bhanḍārī, Dhan³garī, Karhādī, Kiristāv, Kōlī, Kun³bī, Par³bhī, and Thāk³rī. These so-called dialects will be separately dealt with below. In this place we shall consider them all as one form of speech, with slight local variations.

The Konkan Standard is the principal language of Thana, the Jawhar State, Kolaba, Janjira, and the northern part of Ratnagiri. It is spoken by about 2½ million people.

62 MARĀTHĪ.

Proceeding from the north the details are as follows.

A dialect called Parabhi has been returned as spoken by nearly the whole Marathi speaking population of Bombay and Thana as far north as

Daman. Par bhi literally means the language of the Prabhus. The Prabhus, who are identical with the Kāyasths of Gujarat and Upper India, were professional writers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, under both the Muhamaden and the Marāthā governments. Marāthī language and literature are largely indebted to their efforts in recording in prose for the first time the historical events of their period.

The Prabhus are said to have come from Gujarat and Upper India. Their language is everywhere that of their neighbours—Parbhī has been returned as a separate dialect from Bombay and Thana. It is also called Kāyasthī, and in Bombay the Bombay dialect, while it is known as Damanī in the north round Daman.

The number of speakers has been estimated as follows for the use of this survey .-

Thana .											15,000
Jawlin State		•							•		51,000
Bombry Town and Isla	nd	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	57,000
								To	ILL		160,000

The 51,000 speakers in the Jawhar State have been returned as speaking Marāthī. No specimens have been forwarded, and the classification is not, therefore, quite certain

Kölis are found in almost every village in Gujarat, the Konkan, and the Dekhan.

They are considered to be one of the early tribes, and they usually live by agriculture or fishing. They have often been connected with the Munda tribes, who are commonly denoted as Kols. The Kölis of Thana include many small tribes, and may broadly be sub-divided into three classes: the hill Kölis, the Son Kölis of the coast, and certain low-castes who are not recognised by the rest. They everywhere speak the dialect of their neighbours.

Köli has been returned as a separate dialect from Bombay, Thana, Kolaba and Janjia The local estimates of the numbers of speakers are as follows:—

						- ,				
Bombay	Lown:	aI bun	land	•					. 10,0	00
Thana									. 163,0	00
Kolaha									. 10,1	86
Janjira	-								. 6,0	00
							Tor	L	. 189,1	86

The native Roman Catholic Christians of Thana are usually called Kiristav by their Hindu and Musalman neighbours. Among Europeans they are known as Portuguese or Salsette Christians. They have been reported as speaking a separate dialogt, called Kiristav, and their number has been estimated for the purposes of this survey at 25,500

The Kun^abīs or Kulambis are husbandmen. They are usually divided into three groups, the Talheri or Konkan Kun^abīs, the Maiāthā or Dekhan Kun^abīs, and the Pāchkalšīs. They everywhere speak the local language of their district. Thus the Kun^abīs of Khandesh speak a form of Khāndēšī. See Vol. ix, Part ii

Kun ^a bī has been returned fro	om the sea-coast of Thana and Janjira, and specimens
have also been received from Po	oona Estimates of the number of speakers are only
available from Thana and Janjira.	The revised figures for those districts are—

Thana Jinjira	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	. 350,000
omjun	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				. 18,000

The Āg³ris are a class of husbandmen, usually considered to be Kōlīs. Most of them are salt makers and tillers of salt rice land. They are reported as speaking a separate dialect in Kolaba, where they are chiefly found in the villages on both sides of the Amba River in the Pen and Alibak Talukas, in villages situated on the creeks of the Panwel Taluka, and in all the villages of the Uran Peta. Their number has been estimated at 22,826.

The Dhan'gars or shepherds have often been reported to speak a dialoct of their own. The so-called Dhan'gari of Chhindwara will be dealt with in connection with the other dialocts of that district. It is quite different from the dialoct of the shepherds in the Bombay presidency, where Dhan'gari has been returned from Thana, the Jawhar State, Janjira, and Belgaum. The following are the local estimates of the number of speakers:—

тиапа	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,160
Jawhar .			•								•		20
Janjira .													70
Belgaum								•				٠	50 0
										Тота	L		1,750

Bhāndārī is the dialect spoken by the Bhāndārīs, or palm-juice drawers. It has been reported as a distinct form of speech from Kolaba and Janjira, and the number of speakers has been estimated as follows:—

101107	5:										
	Kolaba										3,813
	Janjira	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	4,850
							T	OTAL		•	8,663

The Thākurs are one of the early tribes, and they are found all over Gujarat, the

Dekhan, and the Konkan. They are considered to be the descendants of Rājputs and Kolīs. Thākurī has been returned as a separate language from Kolaba and Nasik, and the number of speakers has been estimated as follows:—

0000 000 -0.7		•											
Kolaba													10,405
Nagik .	•		٠						•	•		•	15,000
										TOTAL			25,105
	Kolaba	Kolaba .	Kolaba										

Karhādī is the dialect spoken by the Karhādā Brāhmans in Sawantwadi, Ratnagiri, and Bombay Town and Island. They are supposed to take their name from Karhad in Satara. Estimates of their number about 2,000.

Sangamēśvarī is the language of Sangameshvar, a town in the Devrukh Taluka of Ratnagiri. The name is, however, often used to denote the Konkan Standard of Marāthī from Bombay to Rajapur. It is there said to be the language of all Hindus (except Brahmans), of the Jews, the native Christians, and the Konkanī Musalmāns called Nawāīts.

The figures returned for the purposes of this survey are as follows: -

							lnnd	and Is	מחופ	Bombay To
							•			Kolaba
				•						Janzun
			•						,	Ratnaguri
										
Toru 1,008,00	TOTAL									
	• •	•		•						Janzim

To this total must be added 234,800 speakers in the south of Kolaba, who were originally returned as speaking Könkanī, but who have since been stated to speak the ordinary Marāthī of the district. We thus arrive at an estimated number of 1,332,800 speakers of Sangamēśvarī. Compare, however, the remarks on pp. 33 and 122.

The variety of the latter dialect spoken by Muhammadans is usually called Bānkötī,

i.e. properly the dialect of Bankot in the Mandangad Taluha
of Ratnagir. Only 1,787 speakers have been returned from
Kolaba, no estimates being available from other districts.

The dialect spoken in the Western Ghats, between Kolaba and the Bhor State, is usually called Ghātī. It is probably identical with Māolī, the language of Maval, or the country above the Sahyadris, between Thana and Poona. The latter dialect has only been returned from Bombay Town and Island. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of the Linguistic Survey as follows:—

Ghāti . Māoli	:	:	:	:	•	•	:	:		•	2,000 35,000
								То	TLL		37,000

All these se-called dialects are closely related. They are merely local forms of the Total number of speakers of current Maratha of the Konkan. By summing up the figures given in the preceding pages we arrive at the following total for that form of speech:—

Par^bhī .												160,000
Koli				•		•	•	·	•			189,186
Kunstär .												25,500
Kun*bi												000,830
Āg ^a rī			•									22 626
Dhan*garī . Bhāndārī .	•	f1 •	•	•	•			•				1,750
Thakmi .	•	•	•	•		٠.		•		•	•	8,663
Karhādi .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	25,105
Sangamīšvari .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	2,000
Bankoti .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,332,800
Ghāti and Maoli	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,787 37,000
		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	57,000

TOTAL . 2,174,917

T	o this to	lal n	ust '	bo t	idded	the	speake	ers of	a f	ew b	roker	dialec	ts,	viz., Kātkarī or
Speak	cers of bro	ton d	intects		Kāt	thödī,	Vārlī	, Vāc	l°val	, Ph	ud°gī	and Sa	imv	ēdī. They will
Opean		X011 4	iaiccia	•	Ъe	dealt	with	belo	w.	w_{e}	thus	arrive	at	the following
grand	total:-	•												
	Konkan	Stand	nıd	•		•								2,174,917
	Kātkarī	•	•		•	•								76,700
	Vărli		•			•	•							92,000
	Vādeval			٠	•	•			,					3,500
	Phud•gi			•	•					•				1,000
	Sāmvēdī	•	•	•			•							2,700
												TOTAL		2,350,817

The most typical form of the Konkan Standard is spoken in the southern part of Konkan Standard of Thana and will be dealt with first. A grammar of this form of speech was written in the seventeenth century by a Portuguese missionary, and the missionary Francisco Vas de Guimaraens wrote an abridged version of the gospels in it. An analysis of this latter work has been printed in the Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, and a short specimen, taken from that source, has been reproduced below. It is usually known as a 'Purān' and is highly popular with the Catholic Christians of Thana,

AUTHORITIES-

Guimerers, Francisco Vas de,—Declaração novamente feita da muita Dolorosa Morte e Paixão do Nosso Sonhor Jesus Christo. Conforme a Escreverão os quatro evangelistas. Lisbon 1659. Reimprimado Bombahim 1845

MITCHFLE, Rev. J. Mubbay,—Maráthí Works composed by the Portuguese. Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. Vol. ini, Part i, 1849, pp 132 and ft.

Grammatica da lingua Concam no dialecto do Norte, composta no seculo xere por hum missionario Portuguez, e agora pela primeira vez dada á estampa (por Joachim Heliodoro da Cunha Rivara)
Nova-Goa Na impiensa nacional 1858.

Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency Vol xui, Part i Bombay 1882. Note on the language on pp 67 and ff.

Pronunciation.—There is considerable uncertainty in the marking of long vowels. Thus we find $n\bar{a}y$ and nay, not; $uth\bar{u}n$ and uthun, having risen; $t\bar{u}$ and $t\bar{u}$, thou; $hut\bar{u}$ and $h\bar{o}t\bar{o}$, I was. The final \tilde{a} of neuter bases is usually marked as short; thus, $sag^{o}l\tilde{a}$, all; $duh^{o}r\tilde{a}$, swine. The long forms $sag^{o}l\tilde{a}$, $duh^{o}r\tilde{a}$, etc., are, however, also common and seem to be more correct. \tilde{E} is usually pronounced as $y\bar{e}$, $y\bar{a}$, or $y\bar{o}$; thus, $y\bar{e}k$, $y\bar{o}k$, one; $ly\bar{e}k$, $ly\bar{a}k$, and $ly\bar{o}k$, son. Before $y\bar{e}$ a guttural is occasionally changed to the corresponding palatal. Thus, $g\bar{e}l\bar{a}$, $gy\bar{e}l\bar{a}$, and $g\bar{e}l\bar{a}$, he went; $gh\bar{e}\bar{u}n$ and $gh\bar{e}u\bar{n}$, having taken; having and having a

An a is pronounced in many cases where the language of the Dekhan uses \tilde{e} . Thus especially in the neuter singular of strong bases, the neuter plural of weak bases, and the future of the first conjugation. Thus, $s\tilde{o}n\tilde{a}$, gold; $duk^{o}r\tilde{a}$, swine; $b\tilde{o}lan$, I shall say. A also corresponds to \tilde{e} of the Dekhan in several pronominal adverbs, and, occasionally, also elsowhere; thus, $tav\tilde{a}$, there; bhuka-na, by hunger; $h\tilde{o}ta$, they were.

The Anunāsika is very commonly dropped. Thus, $kar\tilde{u}$, and karu, to do; $r\bar{a}n\bar{a}t$, in the forest. It is often, however, replaced by an n, and an n-sound is often inserted between a vowel and a following consonant. Thus, $t\bar{a}ntl\bar{a}$, from among them; $m\bar{n}n$, by me, $m\bar{a}ndz\tilde{a}$ and $m\bar{a}dz\tilde{a}$, my; $kanth\bar{a}$ and $kath\bar{a}$, story, etc.

Aspirated and unaspirated letters do not seem to differ much in pronunciation, and they are often interchanged. Thus, $j\bar{\imath}b$, tongue; $\bar{a}m\bar{\imath}$, we, $h\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$ and $\bar{a}n\bar{u}n$, having brought: $l\bar{a}bh^*t\bar{e}$ and $l\bar{a}b^*t\bar{e}$, is found, etc.

The palatals are pronounced as \underline{ts} , \underline{dz} , etc., not only in the same cases as in the Dekhan, but also before \bar{e} ; thus. $\underline{dz}\bar{e}$, who (plural); $ty\bar{a}$ - $ts\bar{e}$ $s\bar{o}h^{3}r\bar{e}$, his sons

Cerebral d and dh after vowels become r; thus, $gh\bar{o}r\bar{a}$, a horse; $par^al\bar{a}$, he fell; $av^ar\tilde{a}$, so great D is, however, preserved in the extreme north and in Ratnagiri, and also in the east where the influence of the Dekhan standard is stronger

Cerebral n becomes n; thus, $k\bar{o}n$, who p pan, but. N is often written where the influence of the literary language is strong, and it is probably also often pronounced by the educated. Thus, the Karhādā Brāhmans of Bombay use the cerebral n. In the verb $mhan^an\tilde{e}$, to say, n sometimes becomes ng, thus, mhangun, therefore.

Cerebral l becomes l; thus, $\epsilon ag^a l\tilde{a}$, all; $d\tilde{o}l\tilde{a}$, an eye. L is, however, often used exactly as is the case with n

 \mathcal{F} is very faintly sounded before i, \bar{i} and \bar{e} ; thus we find istu and vistu, fire; $\bar{i}s$ and $v\bar{i}s$, twenty; $y\bar{e}l$ and $v\bar{e}l$, time.

In other respects the pronunciation is mainly the same as in the Dekhan

Nonns.—The oblique base is, in most cases, formed as in the Dekhan $B\bar{a}pus$, a father, however, has the oblique form $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}s$; thus, $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}s$ - $ts\hat{a}$, of a father. In the same way we often find $\bar{a}\iota s$, a mother, unchanged before case suffixes and forming its plural $\bar{a}y\bar{a}s$, oblique $\bar{a}y\bar{a}s$. The regular forms are, however, also often used. Thus, we find in Saugamēśvarī forms such as $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}s$, to a father; $b\bar{a}p^*s\bar{a}$ - $kad\bar{a}$, towards (his) father. On the other hand, the oblique form sometimes ends in s, also in other nouns; thus, $s\bar{o}kr\bar{a}s$ - $l\bar{a}$, to a daughter; $m\bar{a}n^ss\bar{a}s$ - $l\bar{a}$, to a man.

Bases ending in \tilde{u} often change \tilde{u} to $v\tilde{a}$ in the oblique form; thus, $l\tilde{e}k^{a}r\tilde{u}$, a child, obl $l\tilde{e}k^{a}rv\tilde{a}$. The common form is, however, $l\tilde{e}k^{a}r\tilde{a}$ as in the Dekhan.

The case suffixes are, on the whole, the same as in the Dekhan, but the case of the agent usually ends in n, na, or $n\bar{\imath}$; thus, $s\bar{\nu}k^{\alpha}ry\bar{a}n$, by the son; $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}-na$ and $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}s-n\bar{\imath}$, by the father. The last form is originally a plural. An ablative is often formed by adding $dz\bar{u}n$, and this form is very often used as the case of the agent; thus, $b\bar{a}p\bar{a}s-dz\bar{u}n$ $t\bar{s}\bar{a}k^{\alpha}r\bar{a}-l\bar{a}s\bar{a}ngti^{\alpha}l\bar{a}$, the father said to the servants. The suffix $\ell\bar{\imath}$ or $\ell\bar{\imath}$ is also very commonly used to form an ablative or instrumental; thus, $t\bar{s}\bar{a}k^{\alpha}r\bar{a}n-\ell\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{e}k$, one from the servants. The locative is often formed by adding $\bar{a}n$ or $\bar{a}t$, thus, $ghar\bar{a}n$ and $ghar\bar{a}t$, in the house.

We may finally note that the neuter gender is commonly used as in Könkani to denote young female beings, thus, $\underline{ts}\tilde{e}d\widetilde{u}$, a girl (Sangamésvari). Compare Telugu.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns are the same as in the Dekhan, subject to the changes mentioned under the head of Pronunciation. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$, I; $\bar{a}m\bar{\imath}$, we; $t\bar{u}$, thou; $tum\bar{\imath}$, you. The agent case often takes the suffix $n\bar{\imath}$; thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ and $mi\cdot n\bar{\imath}$, by me 'To me' is $ma\cdot n\bar{a}$ and $ma\cdot l\bar{a}$; 'my' is $m\bar{a}\underline{d}z\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}n\underline{d}z\bar{a}$, and also sometimes $m\bar{a}h\bar{a}$. The first person plural, when the person addressed is included, is $\bar{a}pun$.

Other pronouns are in the main regular. The usual form for 'this' is $h\hat{o}$ or \hat{o} , but also $h\hat{a}$ and \hat{a} In Sangaměsvarī we find $h\hat{a}$, this; $t\hat{a}$, that; and $dz\hat{a}$, which.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is formed from the bases as and $h\bar{o}$ as in the Dekhan. The base as forms its present tense regularly $\bar{a}s\tilde{e}$, I am; $\bar{a}s\bar{e}s$, thou art, etc. The present

[No. 8.]
INDO-ARYAN FAMILY.

SOUTHERN GROUP.

MARĀTHĪ.

KONKAN STANDARD

Köli Dialect.

(Bombly Town and Island)

SPECIMEN 1.

एका मानसाला दोन सोकरे होते। त्यामनचा धाकला सोकरा वापासला जापला । वापस माजा धनाचा वाँटा माना देस । तदँ वापास-ज्न धन वाँटिल । तदं योखा दिमांगी धावाल्या सोवाखान त्याच्या वाँच्याला जवरँ आवतँ तवरं जकल कविलिल यान ट्र विजा गाँवा जीला आन तटे रेला न त्याचे मेरे जवर्र होतं नोतं तवर जवल उदलिलं। याचे सेरे अर्दी पुन नोती नी त्या गाँवाँत मोठा दुकाल आयला नी तदँ त्यांती खावाचे हाल होवँ लागली। मगर्शी तो तनचेच एका सावकाराचे घरा जेला न त्याचे जवल हाला। तदँ त्या सावकारान त्याला धारलन शिता-वर डुकरॅ चारावाला। डुकरॉला जी भुशी लाभे त्यामनची त्यान खुणीर्भी खावन पोट भरलें असते। पुन त्याला कोन देवाला नाय। तह त्यांचे डोले उघरले तद ती जापिते। माभी वापासचे घरा नवरे चानरांला पीरमर रोटी लाभतेन सी अरे इन रोटी मरताय। आताँ सी अर्टगी उटतॉय न वापासचे घरा जाताँय न त्याला निमगिताँय, रोय वापुस मीन परमेसराचं त्ज देकत पाप केलॅंथ। तवाँ आजर्शी माना तुजा सीकरा नय वोलवये। पन माना तूँ आजशीँ चाकर लेख। अवरँ जापुनशी तो त्याचे वापासचे घरा जेला। जदॅ त्याचे वापास-जून लांवर्णी विगल माभा मीकरा येते तद् तो धाँवत जीला न सोकचाला ऑटी मारली। तद् सोकरा वोलते रोय वापुम मीन तुजे टेखत परमेसराच पाप कील न आजर्शी माना तुजा सोकरा नय वोलवये। त्याचे वापास-जून चाकरॉला सांगितलँ, याला आंगान घालावा एक आंगरखा हाना नी द्यास। याचे हातान आंगुतली न पायान जीरे घालावास खास। मगर्भी आपुन जेवाचँ मांडु नी मना करूँ। माजा सोकरा मेलता तो विज्ञन जिता भायला न ती नाय भालता माना लावला। तर ते जकले नाचावा लागले॥